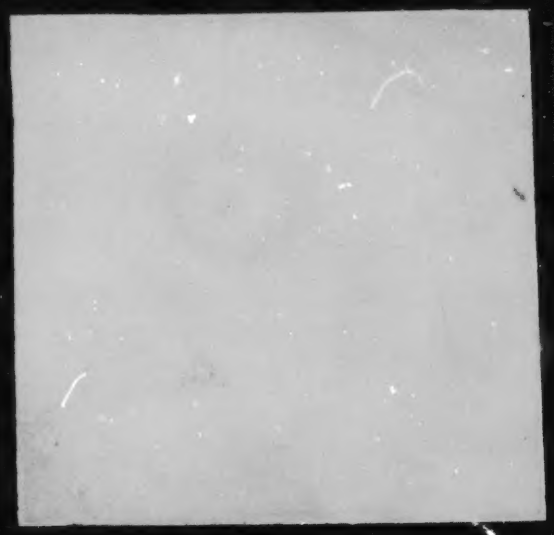

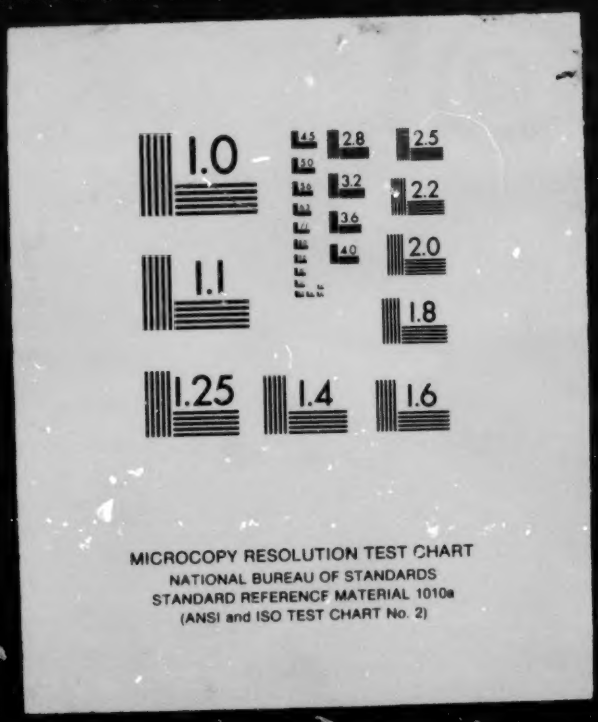
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ABSTRACT

The working conference "Student Teaching: Problems and Promising Practices" brought together experts representing three different role orientations: cooperating teachers, school system representatives, and teacher educators. Under discussion was the student teaching process and the nature of research that might contribute to its better understanding and improvement. Robert Hughes, Jr. presented a historical perspective of the student teaching experience in "Student Teaching: The Past as a Window to the Future." In "Student Teacher: Asset or Liability? An Assessment of Present Practice and Recommendations for the Future," Elizabeth Dillon-Peterson called attention to the role of the local school district in a student teaching program. William L. Hays, in "Satisfaction with the Student Teaching Experience: A Multiple Regression Approach," focused on research methodology to be used in a study of student teaching. Kevin Ryan's paper, "The Cooperating Teacher: Who? What? Why? When? How? and Whither?" directed thinking toward the cooperating teacher as a major factor in the training of student teachers. In "Student Teaching as Human Project: Pursuing Possibility in Schools," Maxine Greene offered a presentation on the nature of student teaching and the possibilities it has for affecting all of schooling. The substance of small group discussions which followed each presentation was synthesized by Gary A. Griffin for "Issues in Student Teaching: People, Interactions, Contexts." (JD)

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The University of Texas at Austin

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STUDENT TEACHING: PROBLEMS AND PROMISING PRACTICES

Gary A. Griffin and Sara Edwards
Editors

Report No. 9015

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This Publication is One of
a Series on
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Gary A. Griffin, Program Director and
Principal Investigator

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Introduction

The working conference "Student Teaching: Problems and Promising Practices" was sponsored by the Research in Teacher Education (RITE) Division of the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education at The University of Texas at Austin.

The conference was a part of the information-gathering phase of designing the RITE study of clinical preservice teacher education. The purpose of the conference was to bring together experts representing three different role orientations: cooperating teachers, school system representatives, and teacher educators, to engage in dialogue regarding the student teaching process and the nature of research that might contribute to better understanding and improvement of that process.

Twenty-nine participants, from varied backgrounds and geographic areas (see Appendix A), met for two days of intensive consideration of the issue. The meeting was focused by four commissioned papers and one paper prepared by a member of the RITE staff. Following each paper presentation, participants convened in small groups to discuss the ideas put forward by the speakers, and to share their own knowledge and recommendations.

Robert Hughes, Jr., of the RITE staff presented a historical perspective of the student teaching experience in the first paper. Betty Dillon-Peterson, Lincoln, Nebraska Public Schools, then called attention to the role of the local school district in a student teaching program. William Hays, The University of Texas at Austin, focused his presentation on research method- ology to be used in a study of the practice. Kevin Ryan, The Ohio State University, directed thinking toward the cooperating teacher as a major factor in the training of student teachers. Finally, Maxine Greene, Teachers

College, Columbia University, elicited strong responses with her concluding presentation on the nature of student teaching and the possibilities it has for affecting all of schooling.

The small group discussions which followed each presentation were recorded for careful study by the RITE staff in designing and implementing the ongoing study which this division is currently (1981-82) conducting on the student teaching experience. The substance of those discussions and of the individual recommendations of participants was synthesized by Gary A. Griffin for the concluding section of this publication.

A special note of appreciation is due Vicky Rodgers in recognition of her invaluable help with all the many details of the conference and with the preparation of this publication.

Sara Edwards
Conference Coordinator

The staff of the Research in Teacher Education Division of the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education acknowledges the contribution of this conference to [illegible] colleague and friend, who was one of the victims of the Memorial Day flood which damaged much of Austin, Texas, last year. Her knowledge of and commitment to the improvement of educational practice were evident in her help with the planning and evaluation, as well as in the conducting of the conference.

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Student Teaching: The Past as a Window to the Future

Robert Hughes, Jr.

Research and Development Center for Teacher Education
The University of Texas at Austin

One cannot discuss the education of teachers without giving some consideration to the place and purpose of practice teaching. While there has been much debate about whether teacher preparation should involve more emphasis on liberal arts studies or on methods of education (Conant, 1963; Silberman, 1970), it is generally agreed that student teaching or the practice of teaching must be a part of teacher education. In James Conant's (1963) analysis of teacher education, he notes the agreement of almost all educators on this point, stating, "the one indisputably essential element in professional education is practice teaching" (p. 142). While there is agreement on the inclusion of student teaching in teacher preparation, a review of the history of these practices indicates that practice teaching has taken numerous forms.

In approaching the study of student teaching, it would seem useful to explore the historical origins of this notion and to examine the role that student teaching has played in teacher education. The purposes of this review and analysis are to examine the various forms of student teaching and the succession of events that appear to have influenced the current state of practice. Additionally, this historical account will identify some of the central issues that affect the practice of student teaching. From this historical perspective perhaps it will be possible to clarify some future directions for student teaching.

In examining the history of teacher education, practice teaching appears to have emerged contemporaneously with the formal education of teachers.

SP 021 334

Indeed, in its earliest beginning, teacher education was practice teaching. In Mead's (1930) account of the origins of student teaching, he suggests that there were two types of activities that antedate student teaching: teacher guilds and tutors. In Germany in the 16th century, teachers formed themselves into guilds much like other tradesmen (Robbins, 1912). Thus, in order to become a teacher, young persons apprentice themselves to master teachers, learning the art of teaching through observation and practice. The other practice that very likely gave rise to practice teaching was the use of older students as tutors for younger students. The English had used a tutor system for many years. In the early 1800's Lancaster developed several new procedures which illustrate the emergence of teacher preparation from the tutoring system (Vaile, 1881). In order to deal with the problem of having a sufficient number of well-trained tutors, the headmaster began offering after school training for some of the more promising older students. In this way, these students received both preparation and compensation for their work as tutors. Later, after a certain amount of experience, the tutors received a small stipend and with sufficient experience and competence, the tutors might become headmasters themselves. This system was eventually formalized into a class for the tutors with a prescribed curriculum and practice, forming the first English teacher training school. In these first teacher education situations, the guild and the tutor system, the practice of teaching was the cornerstone of education.

Normal School Period (1825-1900)

Early in the 1800's, Americans began to consider the need to develop a more formalized system for training teachers. In 1825, Thomas H. Gaullaudet wrote his Plan of a Seminary for the Education of the Instructors of Youth.

In his plan for the creation of "an institution ... in every state for the express purpose of training the professsion of the instructors of youth," he stated:

> Let there be connected with the institution a school in which the theories of the profes[illegible]s might be reduced to practice. Let the students take their turn in the instruction of the experimental school (Harper, 1939).

And later in a series of essays published in the Boston Patriot, James Carter emphasized three major features of a school for teachers: (1) a thorough training in the subject matter that is to be taught, (2) a course of study on the science and art of teaching, and (3) a practice school (Armentrout, 1927). In each case the proponents of teacher education designated practice teaching as a component of training.

In 1839 when the first state supported normal school was opened in Lexington, Massachusetts, it is not surprising that a "model school" was also created with it. In this school, the students-in-training had the opportunity to observe and practice. Cyrus Peirce, first president of the school, explains the model school's purpose as follows:

> The object of the School is to aid the young teacher in practice. To give her an opportunity to apply her theoretic principles -- to try her skill and strength. It is not supposed to be anything more than a near approximation of what a school, a school district is, or should be. (Peirce, p. 37 as cited in Armentrout, 1927).

In the following years, similar normal schools were set up around the New England area, each with some sort of laboratory school.

There is not a great deal written about the exact institutional relationship of the model and normal school, but it is thought in most cases that these early model schools were controlled by the normal schools in every way - administratively, financially, etc. It is of interest to note when the Lexington Normal School was later relocated in West Newton that there occurred

one of the first public school-teacher education institution cooperative arrangements. Part of that agreement read as follows:

> The [school] district furnishes schoolroom, etc., and one permanent male teacher, approved by both parties, and allow such additions to their number, by pupils from abroad, on a small tuition, as circumstances justify. The State Normal School furnishes a portion of apparatus, etc., and two assistant teachers each to observe one week previous to teaching, and to teach two weeks under constant supervision (Bernard, 1851, p.71).

In this arrangement, both the school district and the normal school agreed to share resources and cooperate in the practice teaching program.

The actual practice of teaching in these early model schools could vary a great deal. From an account provided by two English educators who toured the United States in the late 1800's, the following descriptions of model schools are found (Bramwell & Hughes, 1894). In Pennsylvania the state required the students to practice teach one hour per day for the last three quarters of the year. At Westchester the students attended the model school for observation and hearing lessons. Later in the semester, they taught under supervision, with the lessons carefully planned by the critic teacher. There was no public criticism of the lessons, but weekly conferences were held to discuss the lessons. No written evaluations were provided.

In contrast to this experience, the students in New Britain, Connecticut, received much more extensive practice. Initially, the student was to observe for some period of time, then the student gave one trial lesson in the model school. Following this the student conducted some independent practice in an outside school in which the student was responsible for a class for four months. The student was responsible for discipline and class management as well as teaching. In describing the supervision, the authors note:

> There were four responsible, experienced teachers for reference in case of emergency, and for criticism; but each student had

her own class, and the school of 700 children was practically managed by the students (Bramwell & Hughes, 1894, p. 50).

The contrast between these students' experience and those in Pennsylvania is quite marked. Clearly students in the latter case had much greater experience in the everyday life of schools, but probably received only minimal supervision.

Perhaps the most carefully planned programs of practice teaching were carried out by the Oswego schools in New York under the supervision of Edward A. Sheldon (Dearborn, 1925). Sheldon organized a quite rigorous system of practice teaching. Initially, the practice school was only the lower primary grades, but within several years, the schools were expanded to include all the grades from kindergarten through high school. The teachers-in-training spent considerable time learning the subject matter and received training in methods of teaching after the school closed. In addition to these afternoon methods courses, one afternoon was spent in the review and criticism of the lessons given by the practice teachers. In the practice school, three of the classrooms had permanent teachers and two of the classrooms had no permanent teachers. Initially, the students only taught reading and math, but gradually added additional topics. Each student teacher observed for two weeks, then practiced two weeks, going from grade to grade and ending up in charge of a class with no regular teacher. They continued this observation/training rotation for twenty weeks. At the end of a year, each student teacher was given an examination which included the demonstration of a lesson.

The Oswego School, under Edward Sheldon, sought to make the practice school an example for others. Dearborn (1925) summarizes the basic principles of Sheldon. In regard to the preparation of teachers, he indicated:

1. They must have an exhaustive knowledge of the subjects to be taught.

2. They must have a knowledge of children and how to study them.

3. They must have a clear understanding of the use to be made of the means employed in the training of children. This implies a knowledge of educational principles and their application in teaching (Dearborn, 1925, p. 40).

The role of the supervisor was also outlined by the Oswego school:

> The student-teacher should be provided with the most competent critic obtainable. It is the business of the critic (a) to supervise and direct, (b) to give illustrative lessons when necessary, (c) to discover the commendable traits of the student-teacher and give him also possible encouragement, (d) later, and always prefaced by something commendable, to bring to the attention of the student-teacher his faults, one at a time in the order of their importance, and not to allude to a fault after the student-teacher becomes conscious of it, and (e) to be as unobtrusive as possible (in fact, the constant presence of the critic is not desirable) (Dearborn, 1925, p. 41).

In addition to these principles about the nature of preparation and role of supervisors, Sheldon also had some very clear ideas about what the practice school should be like. His principal concern was that the practice school was similar to regular public schools. He emphasized that the practice school should not be a model or demonstration place. The school should have a public school population; therefore, no tuition should be charged. He also believed the school should contain all grades. Each of these ideas was directed toward the goal that "the Practice School should perform all the functions of, and be equal to, the best organized public schools" (Dearborn, 1925, p.41).

While student teaching became a well accepted component of teacher education, it has always had its critics. One of the first debates about the value of practice teaching took place at the First Annual Convention of the American Normal School Association in 1859 (Armentrout, 1927). At this convention, there was considerable discussion as to whether practice teaching was necessary training. The two most serious objections raised were the lack of realism in student teaching; that is, the fact that the practice was not

similar to the actual work of teachers. The second concern was the degree to which the practice interfered with the learning of other necessary aspects of education such as subject matter.

Other challenges to the idea of student teaching were raised in connection with the use of public schools as places of practice. Although some early cooperative efforts were successful, others were not. In Ypsilanti, Michigan, a cooperative arrangement between the normal school and the school district developed problems. The superintendent of the State Board of Education complained that the students in the practice schools were not receiving adequate instruction (Williams, 1942). Later, the practice school arrangement in the Ypsilanti public schools was discontinued because of "the distances which students were compelled to travel, the difficulty incurred in giving adequate supervision, and the aversion which parents felt toward having their children 'practiced upon' by inexperienced teachers" (Williams, 1942, p. 8) Clearly, the use of public schools as practice institutions has always posed some significant problems.

In reviewing the contributions of the early normal schools to teacher education, Harper (1939) notes that there were several important accomplishments. First, he states that the normal schools transformed teaching into a profession. As a result of the normal schools, teachers and teacher educators came to be viewed as an integral part of the professional community. The normal schools recognized their continued role in teacher education through follow-up and inservice. Perhaps one of the most lasting contributions was their emphasis on the laboratory phases of teacher education. Harper (1939) writes, "the model and practice schools became the most distinctive trait

of the normal school. The training school was recognized as the focal point of the entire process and here all the theory and subject matter taught was to find its application and crucial test" (p. 118). Two of the central issues debated in the early model schools were: (1) who should supervise the student teacher, a special critic teacher or regular faculty member, and (2) what institution should be responsible for the practice school, the normal school or the public schools. Harper (1939) concludes, "these questions were not decided . . . ." (p. 119).

Teacher College Period (1900-1948)

In the early part of the twentieth century the training of teachers experienced further changes. Three major trends emerged: (1) the transformation of normal schools into teachers colleges and liberal arts universities, (2) the increased professionalism of teacher educators and (3) the emergence of public school-teaching training institution cooperation. Within these events was continued debate about the nature of student teaching.

Normal schools began to change and to expand into institutions meeting a wider range of needs in the early 1900's. In many places the normal school was the only educational institution beyond public school and many students wished to continue their education and yet not enter teaching. Schools began to expand to provide for these students. About the same time there was also a press to upgrade the institutions of teacher education. Gradually the normal schools were transformed into teachers colleges. The growth of teachers colleges was rapid (McAllister, 1962). In the early 1900's only two teachers colleges (at Ypsilanti, Michigan, and at Albany, New York) had four-year curriculums. Between 1911-1920, nineteen normal schools converted to teachers colleges and between 1921-1931 an additional 69 new teachers colleges were

formed. By the end of the first half of the twentieth century most normal schools had become colleges.

Professionalization of Teacher Education. The professionalization of teacher education began to manifest itself in many ways. In particular teacher education went through the development and implementation of a certification process. In some places even as late as 1914 it was possible to "obtain a teaching certificate by passing an examination in the common branches, and answering a few simple questions dealing with a subject called pedagogy. Not even a high school education was required" (Ragan, 1960, p. 12). The forces of change came from both inside and outside the profession. Many states passed laws regarding teacher certification that called for practice teaching as a necessary requirement for certification. Many liberal arts colleges added teacher preparation courses to their programs so that their graduates could be certified. From within the educational community itself teacher educators organized themselves into a professional community. During the first part of the 20th century, many professional teacher educator organizations were formed.

Of the professional organizations that were established, the National Association of Supervisors of Student Teaching and the American Association of Teachers Colleges had considerable impact on student teaching. After its founding in 1920, the National Association of Supervisors of Student Teaching has, through its meetings and publications, continually promoted study and discussion of practice teaching. At these meetings. there was continuous discussion of the optimal ways of conducting the clinical experience aspect of teacher education. The American Association of Teachers Colleges was influential through its accreditation process. In 1927, this organization compiled

its first set of standards for teachers colleges. Included in these standards were guidelines for student teaching. These standards focused primarily on the number of courses required, credits and the proportion of time to be spent on class instruction. These activities of professionalization and certification signified the increased importance of teacher education.

Public School - College Cooperation. There were also other changes taking place in the education of teachers. From the establishment of the early normal schools until around 1920, most of the practice schools were connected very closely with the teacher education institution (Slay, 1974). Only about twenty to thirty percent of the teachers received some practical experience in public schools. In the use of public schools as practice experiences, there were several models of cooperation. In 1920, Welborn conducted a study of the various types of arrangements between public schools and colleges and found three basic types:

1) a unified administration of the public school and the training school through one individual who acted as director of training and also superintendent of the schools;

2) public schools utilized under terms of a contract between the normal school and the school board;

3) public schools utilized through informal cooperation between the normal school and the school district.

Welborn found that the informal arrangements between public schools and colleges was the most frequently used system. Between the years of 1930 to 1947, there was a steady increase in the use of public schools as practice sites. Foster's research in 1933 revealed the increase in the use of public schools (Swenson & Hammock, 1951). And by 1947, Blyer reported that the public schools provided training to the greatest number of student teachers.

The teacher education enterprise during the first half of the 20th century was characterized by growth and professionalization. The role and importance of student teaching is exemplified by the establishment of the National Association of Supervisors of Student Teaching which took as one of its primary objectives the improvement of practice teaching. This organization served as a forum for debate of methods and models for practice. The emergence of public schools rather than model schools as the primary training site for student teachers also reflected both the growth of teacher education and an emerging consensus that more realistic training could be obtained in the public schools.

Field-based Period

Following the second World War, there were some significant changes in the conduct of student teaching. Some of these changes were brought about by the continuing processes of professionalization that began in earlier decades, but some events were the result of emerging factors in the society. Many authors reviewing the development of student teaching cite the Flowers report issued in 1948 as one of the most significant events in the development of field practice (Andrews, 1964; Conant, 1963; Slay, 1974). This was the first revision of the standards for student teaching since the standards established by AATC in 1926. The creation of the commission to study the standards for student teaching reflected the mood and concern of educators in regard to how the direct experience of students in classrooms could be utilized most effectively.

Perhaps the major contribution of the Flowers' report was to focus educators' attention on the role of student teaching in the preparation of teachers. The committee took a comprehensive look at the role of practice

in teacher education. One contribution of the committee was the expansion of the purpose for laboratory experience. They wrote,

> Professional laboratory experiences include all those contacts with children, youth and adults (through observation, participation, and student teaching) which make a direct contribution to an understanding of individuals and their guidance in the teaching-learning process. Student teaching is the period of guided teaching when the student takes increasing responsibility for the work with a given group of learners over a period of consecutive weeks (Flowers, et al., American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1948, p. 321-322).

This expanded definition of student teaching encouraged programs to expand the opportunities for direct experience. These included many opportunities for observation and participation in organizations such as Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, 4-H, youth agencies, etc. (Watters & Halsted, 1962). Another change was in the expansion and strengthening of student teaching through the use of larger, more inclusive opportunities for practice. Emphasis was placed on allowing the students not only practice in teaching, but also an initiation into the other activities of school life.

Additionally, this committee of distinguished teacher educators prepared a set of standards for laboratory experiences. The report outlined the nine following central principles for guiding student teaching.

(1) The contributions of laboratory experience are: (1) an opportunity to implement theory, (2) helps the student see the need for further study and (3) the opportunity to explore with the student his/her functioning in teaching-learning situations.

(2) The experiences should be planned in terms of the needs of the student.

(3) Guided contact with a variety of individuals is important in laboratory experiences.

(4) The student should have the opportunity to participate in all important phases of a teacher's activities.

(5) Laboratory experiences should be developed cooperatively by students and advisors.

(6) The experiences should be integrated with the rest of the education program.

(7) Evaluation of laboratory experience should be broadbased and functional.

(8) Physical facilities should be adequate to provide a broad range of experiences.

(9) The laboratory experiences should be developed to recognize the continuity of preservice and inservice education.

These principles were to serve as guidelines for the development of laboratory experiences. In general, these principles reflect efforts to provide students with experiences that meet their individual needs as well as provide many diverse opportunities to work with the pupils.

Another very significant development affecting the education of teachers was the increased use of public schools for student teaching. As indicated previously a continuous issue throughout the history of teacher education has been the relationship between the training school and the so-called "practice school." As noted earlier, the early 20th century was a time of increased use of public rather than campus schools for practice teaching. The influx of students to the universities following the second World War and the demand for teachers that dominated the 50's and 60's overwhelmed the campus-based laboratory schools and necessitated that students obtain their experience in public schools. Thus, the informal arrangements that sufficed in previous decades had to be replaced by more formal cooperative agreements among school districts and teacher education institutions. This change created both new obstacles and new opportunities for teacher preparation. The increasing distance between the practice school and the college created new problems in supervision and evaluation. At the same time, the use of public schools provided a more realistic environment for practice, one in which the student

teacher had more opportunity to experience the work conditions of the schools.

New Directions. The 1960's were also a time of many new ideas for the education of teachers. Many scholars both in and out of the field of education offered their commentary on the preparation of teachers. The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (NCTEPS) of the National Education Association published its recommendations for teacher education in 1961. Among this committee's proposals was a set of guidelines for student teaching. In commenting on the significance of student teaching, they wrote:

> Direct experience has the dual purpose of giving meaning to ideas and concepts for which the individual has little or no conceptual background and of providing an opportunity to test his ability to implement understanding in action (Lindsey, 1961, p. 67).

Similar to the recommendations of the Flowers' report, this commission urged the expansion of direct experience opportunities. They urged that these experiences be a part of each year of training, that they be integrated with the professional course work and that the experiences be individualized to the needs of the student. Their specific proposals for student teaching were:

(1) two periods of student teaching - one early in training and one near the end;

(2) individualized decision-making about when student teaching should take place;

(3) student teaching should provide contact with the broad range of educator's activities;

(4) observation should follow experience;

(5) student teaching should be expertly supervised by representatives from both the college and the field situation.

The commission went on to urge the creation of internship opportunities in addition to student teaching.

in terms of scholarship, but rather through their skills in practice and in supervision. Conant's analysis and proposals emphasize the important roles played by the supervising team and the need for strengthening their functions in the preparation of teachers.

Another critical problem in the preparation of student teachers is the college-public school cooperative arrangement. In a thorough study, L. O. Andrews, in 1964, offered a set of proposals for making this arrangement more effective. He argued that the college-controlled laboratory arrangement either in a campus or public school was no longer possible. He recommended a dual supervision model. This model necessitated the sharing of responsibility by both the college and public school. The college supervisor in Andrews' 1964 model "would work primarily through the classroom teacher, meanwhile observing the student teacher a few times, holding follow-up conferences, running the campus seminar, and deciding on the final grade" (p. 55). The cooperating teacher "would carry on all of the day-to-day planning and evaluating and most of the individual conferences" (Andrews, 1964, p. 55). Andrews worked out a careful organizational plan for the cooperation and integration of the public school and college in order that each may contribute constructively to the practice teaching phase of education.

In the most recent years, educators have continued to review and evaluate the methods of educating teachers (Howsam, Corrigan, Denmark, Nash, 1976; Smith, 1980). In an attempt to provide practice that is more true-to-life, teaching centers and other field-based education centers have been established (Slay, 1974). The supervision of students remains a key issue in the organization of practice teaching. A recent AACTE commission report recommends that the

Another important study of teacher education was James Bryant Conant's classic report on The Education of American Teachers (1963). Conant placed heavy emphasis on student teaching as a critical feature in successful teacher training. He formulated a variety of ideas concerning the administration and supervision of student teachers. He argued for the development of state-approved practice teaching arrangements. He urged the state government to establish guidelines and criteria for the certification of practice teaching positions. Additionally, he called for the increased funding by the state to local school districts to insure high-quality practice teaching.

Perhaps the most notable idea proffered by Conant was the improved status of the supervisory personnel in student teaching. Within the public school, he suggested that cooperating teachers be selected who are known to school officials, collegiate faculty and the state department "as highly competent teacher(s) both of classroom pupils and student teachers" (Conant, 1963 p. 61). He goes on to state, "cooperating teachers should have time freed to aid student teachers; they should also have increased compensation in recognition of added responsibility and special talent" (Conant, 1963, p. 62).

From the college side of the supervision framework, Conant proposed the creation of "clinical professorships." He described several necessary criteria for this position:

> The clinical professor must be a master of teaching methods and materials; he must also be up to date on advances in the educational sciences and how to apply this knowledge to the concrete work in which his student teacher is involved (Conant, 1963, p. 62).

Conant likened this position to that of the medical sciences in which a skilled, practicing physican guides the medical student in the art of medicine. He argued that while these persons should have the salary and status of other professors, they would not be expected to contribute to the college

> establishment of some teacher education centers be located away from campus, employing well-prepared, professional supervisors who retain continuing teaching responsibilities with a local school system and serve as an adjunct or part-time members of one or more college faculties (Howsam, et al., 1976, p. 94).

In addition to these measures to improve supervision there have been several recent books directed toward improving the practice of supervision (Cogan, 1975; Goldhammer, Anderson & Krajewski, 1980).

At present as well as in the past, teacher educators are struggling with ways to provide laboratory experience that links theory and practice. Many of the current models have sought to broaden students' experiences by offering a multiple range of settings with many types of students. Also, in order to provide more real-life experiences there have been increased efforts to involve more public school personnel in the training and supervision process. There has been a further shift in university-public school cooperation towards a more equal input into the planning and implementation of the student teaching experience.

Lessons From the Past

From this brief overview of student teaching in the United States during the last two centuries, some basic patterns of change emerge which provide a frame of reference for some persistent concerns and issues. To summarize the major themes for each teacher education period one could suggest: the normal period was dominated by the establishment of student teaching, professionalization of student teaching through legislation and the establishment of professional organizations for teacher educators characterized the teachers college period, and expansion of the opportunities and conception of student teaching has been the central notion of the most recent field-based era.

Perhaps one of the most important features of the past is the tradition that the education of teachers demands practice teaching. The art and science of teaching have always been viewed as comprising a craft that demands a supervised training period. While many would challenge the value of other aspects of teacher education, few would recommend the elimination of supervised practice. However, in the general acceptance of this proposition, perhaps there has been too little consideration of exactly what the student is to gain from this practice and through what specific methods knowledge is gained. In acknowledging the importance of student teaching, we are challenged to examine specifically what is meant by this age-old practice of students participating in classrooms under the tutelage of a master-critic-cooperating teacher.

As a reflection of the world around it, education and the training of teachers is also pushed and pulled by social factors. Throughout the history of teacher education, one can find evidence of factors outside of the educational process that has caused changes. Indeed, it was the demand for competent, well-trained teachers that initiated teacher education. The growth of normal schools into liberal arts colleges also was a response to pressures for increased educational opportunity, as well as the desire for institutions to achieve status. Most recently, the emergence of public schools as the primary laboratory facility for teachers-in-training was due more to financial and practical circumstances than to carefully chosen educational objectives. In pondering these past events, one is led to consider carefully whether teacher preparation has any defensible claims for its present practices and if so, what those rationales are. Also, one should be ever mindful of the impact of current social events and their continuing impact on the structure and function of teacher education.

There have been several issues that have been constant themes in the history of teacher education. Regardless of the period of history, there have been heated arguments and propositions about the type of practice necessary for effective teaching, the proper way to evaluate student teachers and the strategies for supervision. The decisions made about these three aspects of student teaching constitute the major elements in an effective program. In regard to the past, this provides us with a host of methods, but rarely with any definitive position or model. The task that emerges seems to be one of establishing a theoretical and empirical basis for making decisions about what types of practice, evaluation and supervision lead to the most competent teachers.

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Student Teacher: Asset or Liability?

An Assessment of Present Practice and Recommendations for the Future

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introduction

The purpose of this paper was originally to deal with the advantages and disadvantages of having student teachers from the public school perspective. This focus was also to include some assessment of the kinds of skills which student teachers appear to have well in hand when they arrive at the student teaching assignment, and what others they should have or be more proficient in.

While these are important issues, there are other matters which are worth considering, particularly in the context of a conference which is designed to think creatively about ways to improve this last segment of the training of most pre-teaching programs. Two of these are dealt with in the first and last sections of this paper.

The first is a call to give serious consideration to the relationship which currently exists between the school site and the university site in terms of all the elements of the teacher training program, and particularly the student teaching experience. The author has attempted to point out the differences in perspective existing in the two groups which may inhibit the achievement of significant improvement in the training sequence.

The second is a set of philosophical and practical recommendations for possible restructuring of the teacher preparation program prior to and including the student teaching experience. The recommendations are intended to challenge those involved to be courageous enough to look outside the present

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framework for possible answers to long-existing and not-yet-existing, problems. In this day of retrenchment, growing conservatism, and skepticism about change, it behooves forward-looking educators even more to think outside the present limits rather than within them.

Differing Perceptions - Block to Collaboration

There is a drawing which is frequently used in psychology classes to demonstrate differences in perception. Any audience viewing the drawing will split along predictable proportions when asked to describe what they see. One group will immediately see a crone-like figure sans teeth, bundled in a shawl. The other will just as clearly see the figure of a beautiful young woman in a picture hat. And having once seen the figure first perceived, it is very difficult for either group to see the other figure, even when it is pointed out to them.

Something like this happens when the student teaching experience is described by the two sets of actors most closely related to the process. In the main, public schools people, who host the process, and those who work with it in the institution of higher education have two very different perceptions about what their relationship is or should be.

This may be because of the fact that many teachers and school districts have found the partnership between them and the teacher training institution to be relatively unsatisfactory. If asked to explain why they have found that to be true, some public school people would state, with a bit of disgruntlement (and perhaps even a touch of pique) that they have always been second-class citizens in the operation. If pressed, they might even state emphatically that teacher training institutions have not, in the main, historically, solicited, welcomed, or appreciated the input of half the actors in the teacher training process.

They would accuse teacher training institutions of treating teacher training as wholly within their province and viewing schools as job sites and practitioners largely as on-site technicians -- not as co-equal professionals engaged in collaborative work for which each of the two contributing specialists is equivalently qualified to provide essential but different portions of the training. They might suggest that where there have been attempts at collaboration, there has been an attitude of patronage on the part of the institution of higher education rather than one of mutual respect. They have been known to aver that, "Degrees do not effectiveness guarantee." And they may privately opine that new ideas can not survive once they have entered the halls of ivy. They are equally confident that college professors could not survive in the "real" world. In summary, from the public school point of view, the teacher training institution makes the decisions about student teaching and the public schools carry them out.

Professors of education might react to such a temperamental display with some surprise, not having been aware that they were offending their public school colleagues. They would admit to some reservations about the general capability of public school personnel to truly understand the ramifications of educational research and they may have serious questions from time to time about the rather pedestrian application (or even the lack thereof) of learning theory. They are alternately amused and depressed by the school district's clumsy attempts at change ranging from "band wagon" acceptance to stodgy, unreasoned resistance.

They discreetly decry the fact that school districts seem populated by so much mediocrity. They feel just a tinge of resentment at what they sometimes see as the school district's attempt to usurp their power or tamper with their programs. They are of the opinion that the teacher training program will be

less effective if it is not controlled and managed by them, since they have the most expertise (and supply the funds). They believe that public school people are too caught up in the minutia of day-to-day operations to give adequate thought or attention to broader, more philosophical concerns.

These scenarios are obviously over-drawn and both perspectives are no doubt distorted. But there is evidence of growing reluctance on the part of public schools and public school teachers to participate in the student teaching program. For example, the teacher's union of a fair-sized school district recently urged its membership to refuse to accept student teachers and recommended that the district cease providing practicum sites for their training. Their argument was that an undue amount of teacher time was being used in a program for which the teachers had no real responsibility and for which neither they nor the district were receiving adequate benefits in return.

In another school district, in another section of the country, a group of building principals demanded that a research study be done to determine what deleterious effect, if any, the presence of student teachers might have on the achievement of students in their buildings.

Unfortunately, these kinds of incidents have been occurring with increasing frequency in many places during the past few years. At one time, having a student teacher was generally accepted as an opportunity to make a genuine contribution to the profession. It was also considered by many to be a chance to revitalize one's own teaching skills or to be recognized and rewarded for having done a good job of teaching. Now it has come to be viewed in many cases as an added burden, and one which may even have the potential for weakening the instructional program for students.

Perhaps it is important to focus on some possible reasons for this change in attitude, since today's student teacher enters that experience under different circumstances than those his or her predecessor faced. This difference may have a substantial influence on what knowledge, skills, and attitudes it will be necessary for the successful student teacher to bring to this vital part of the professional training continuum.

One significant influence may be what some writers have called the "me generation." Teachers exhibiting this syndrome have become more and more internally focused. Their own needs and desires have become paramount and they have lessening concern for the needs of others outside their immediate contact circles. They appear to have limited regard for the "common good." They exhibit a growing unwillingness to give more of their time and energy than is minimally required to do their work. This is not to say that these individuals do not do an adequate or even exemplary job of what they have been employed to do. It is just that many teachers appear to have made a private decision to turn their additional energies to their personal interests.

Another factor which may have a bearing on the change in attitude is the increasing unionization of the teaching profession. This unionization has left many teachers with strongly ambivalent feelings. Many of those who have been educators for many years value their status as "professionals" and have difficulty associating themselves with teacher militance, negotiation, and strikes. Nevertheless, they feel the frustration of the unappreciated. They see the society making greater and greater demands on them. They are expected to include a broader and broader range of students within their classrooms, while becoming more and more accountable for student performance. And they do not see themselves as being accorded the status which accompanies wages commensurate with high expectations.

In the context of this paper, this sense of powerlessness may also account for some of the lessening of enthusiasm for assisting with the student teacher experience. In the past, teachers readily accepted a subordinate role in the student teaching program but as they become better educated and more sophisticated, they are less willing to accept anything other than a co-equal status. This is particularly true since student teachers consistently report their student teaching experience to be the most valuable part of their professional training. Teachers are beginning to expect, and may eventually demand, true collaboration -- not only in the student teaching experience, but in the entire sequence -- from very early identification (perhaps as early as elementary school), through grooming and formal selection, through instruction in theory and formal academic professional course work, and through practica. They may insist on being integrally involved in all phases of decision-making, curriculum development, delivery of instruction, supervision, and governance or they may reject participation altogether. Given this fact, it is important to begin to establish a blue-print for genuine collaboration. If we can do that, the entire educational system will be enhanced and moved forward and the divergent perceptions will become more nearly identical.

A Plea for Partnership

The preceding comments have been made primarily to call attention to the need for really significant collaboration in an endeavor which is difficult enough to challenge all our energies to capacity. Perhaps it is time for educators to think seriously about putting these two separatist positions to rest. It may be true that we no longer have time for the luxury of such unproductive divisions. If education is to realize its true potential for helping train people to lead truly productive, self-fulfilled lives in a world which can learn to manage its burdensome and complex problems, we must think

about teacher preparation which is the best it can be in its conception and operation.

No realist would suggest that a genuine partnership can come easily. Collaboration has been a clarion call for many years with disappointing results. Turf problems exist as pervasively in the field of education as they do anywhere. But it is in the self-interest of all of us to find ways to overcome the divisions of the past and to plan creatively for ways to do the crucially important work of preparing our successors in the classroom to be more capable than we are. This is a formidable task, for they will be preparing their students to deal with a society infinitely more complex than the one we sometimes shake our heads over. Merely as good as we are will not be good enough.

Fine-tuning the Present Program

It would be exciting to be able to concentrate our entire efforts for a time as public schools people and higher education staff engaged in teacher training on the development of a better, more mutually-satisfying model for working more effectively together. Unfortunately, we do not have that opportunity -- our day-to-day work must continue as must our guidance of new professionals. Even so we must continue to try constantly to improve the relationship and to increase dialogue so that we will better understand each other. At the same time, we must carry on business not as usual but better than ever. We can fine-tune the present operation while we explore ways to improve it. A consideration of the assets and liabilities, skill or lack thereof, of present student teachers is useful in the context of that fine-tuning. Fortunately, we still have a sound base on which to build because many teachers are still eager to work with student teachers, even though it would be possible to engender a lively debate in many host school districts by

asking staff members to list advantages or disadvantages to having student teachers.

One way of finding out something about what student teachers should bring to their student teaching experience, and what their skills or lack of skills may be, is to search the literature. In the present era, when specificity and clear competency statements are in vogue, a plethora of these characteristics, categories, and checklists can be found. A typical document of this kind lists sixteen categories of teaching competence (Snider, 1977).

1. Open and flexible teaching personality (62)
2. Proper perspective of teaching-learning situation (77)
3. Adequate health and vitality (26)
4. Effective voice and speech patterns (41)
5. Ability to work cooperatively with other staff members (46)
6. Ability to profit from feedback (32)
7. Maturity of judgment and ability to make realistic decisions (73)
8. Command of subject matter (44)
9. Competence in preparing effectively for lessons (54)
10. Competence in classroom management (116)
11. Competence in performing a variety of critical teaching tasks (76)
12. Competence in evaluating students (85)
13. Competence in motivating learners (87)
14. Fair and just attitude in dealing with students (97)
15. Competence in a "clinical approach to misbehavior" (97)
16. Commitment to student teaching (117)

The numerals in parentheses indicate the number of "demonstrated by" indicators which were to be used to measure student teacher competency. They total one thousand one hundred thirty -- a formidable accomplishment, especially for a nine-week student teaching experience. Somehow, the title of this particular paper seemed particularly appropriate: Student Teaching Behaviors Identified by a National Jury of Cooperating Teachers as Indicators of Success in Sixteen Competency Areas. In and of itself, such a list of behaviors or characteristics is not to be ridiculed. In fact, this particular set of indicators is considerably better than most. However, it may be that

we and our educational pendulum have swung somewhere between unrealistic and ridiculous in our desire to be accountable.

Rather than undertaking the somewhat depressing task of combing the literature and coming up with some composite list, the author has chosen to collect and present the thoughts of a number of sensitive, positive, visionary, effective, public school personnel. They represented the following categories of public school personnel who have some connection with the student teaching program: central office administrator with responsibility for staff development and new teacher orientation; central office educational planner and former supervisor of student teachers for a university as well as a cooperating public school teacher; central office personnel officer with responsibility for placement of student teachers and liaison with the university; current joint-appointee between a university and a public school district who serves as a supervising teacher and a regular public school classroom cooperating teacher, devoting half-time to each assignment; and regular classroom teachers who serve regularly as cooperating teachers.

These individuals responded to the following questions:

1. What are the advantages and disadvantages of having student teachers in the school district (or assigned to you)?

2. What knowledge, skills, attitudes should student teachers bring to their student teaching assignment?

3. What should student teachers know more about or be able to do better than they do now?

For all their simplicity, these questions elicited thoughtful, thought-provoking comments which may add to a consideration of ways to improve the training of teachers.

Advantages

When cooperating on-site teachers are polled, the factor they mention most often as an advantage of having a student teacher is that another pair of hands is avilable to help. The help primarily takes the form of more individualized instruction or better attention to individual student needs. While some cooperating teachers see the student teacher lightening their personal loads, providing them with more opportunities to visit the teachers' lounge, or pass along distasteful or boring tasks, the vast majority who enjoy working with student teachers tie the advantages to enhancing their ability to work more effectively with students.

The second most often mentioned advantage is that having a student teacher brings in a constant stream of new ideas and resources. Most cooperating teachers appreciate the fresh viewpoint which the student teacher brings. They also mention that the student teacher provides them with another set of perceptions as they look at students and the curriculum. These perceptions may serve to challenge their biases, broaden their awareness, or affirm their convictions.

One teacher commented that having a student teacher was a great stimlus to his own thinking. He said, "The questions they ask are as important as the suggestions they make. When they say, 'Why do you teach that?', you suddenly are required to focus on, and clarify the reason for, what you're doing. That's valuable -- and you are unlikely to be introspective because of the press of day-to-day teaching." He noted that sometimes the "why?" results in a decision that the particular activity wasn't the best one possible, or wasn't necessary at all.

A perceptive point of view came from a teacher who said that having a student teacher was "affirmation that people learn and approach things differently," calling attention to the fact that there is a variety of models which

work for some people, but not others.

The second pair of hands has another advantage -- those hands can greatly increase the amount of work that can be done in a given period of time. The student teacher can produce additional materials, do research on a unit of study, or look up student statistics which can provide direction for more appropriate personalized instruction.

Teachers who enjoy having student teachers speak frequently of the lift they get from their association with young people who are so idealistic, enthusiastic, and dedicated. They feel a great deal of satisfaction as they see the student teachers' skills and confidence growing steadily.

On a more altruistic, philosophic level, a teacher noted that having a student teacher was one of the best ways to invest one's energies because of the fact that it is one of the very few ways one can be assured of having some influence on the future.

Some teachers noted that having a student teacher made the class more interesting for students, partly because of the variety a new face represented, but also because of the youth, energy, and attractiveness which many of them represented. Teachers admitted that they, too, found the variety of working with a "new professional" stimulating.

"It's like inviting guests for dinner -- you're sure your house is shipshape and you use your best linen." This is the way a cooperating teacher described the motivation having a student teacher provided for her. Her analogy indicated that she found herself using her most effective techniques, and doing her "top grade" teaching because of her desire to be a superior model for her student teacher.

A secure cooperating teacher commended her most recent student teacher and others she had worked with for "being able to use some teaching strategies

effectively that don't work well for me," and thereby reaching some students in a better way than she had been able to.

One of the respondents described her role as a cooperating teacher as an "opportunity to pay my dues. Someone expended their energy and shared their talent with me -- now it's my turn."

Except for the comments related to better individualization of instruction and closer attention to individual needs, teachers did not tie the presence of the student teacher to any direct improvement of academic achievement.

Disadvantages

Even in this positive, highly-professional group, there was little hesitation in pointing out some disadvantages of having student teachers either in the school district or directly assigned to an individual.

Almost universally, the group of educators agreed that the greatest disadvantage to having student teachers was the extra time which was required to work with them well. Sometimes these time problems were the result of unsatisfactory scheduling of the student teacher's time, such as assignment for only part of a day, which made it cumbersome to work out conferencing and planning time. In other instances, the problems were the result of having to find extra time to explain, to counsel, to instruct the student teacher before he or she could progress to a level of competence where such communication, (particularly about low-level concerns) was unnecessary.

The entire group polled expressed a gratifying sense of personal responsibility for, and commitment to, the student teachers assigned to them. The disadvantage in this appeared to be the nagging concern which was expressed by most of them that they might be missing some important communication with the student teacher, or not involving them sufficiently in the right kinds of

things -- that the experience would not be as meaningful and helpful as they wanted it to be for the student. They exhibited an impressive sense of responsibility for the success of the assignment.

Skill deficiencies present in the student teacher present another problem for the cooperating teacher. Sometimes, this group freely admitted, they do not themselves have a clear sense of how to remediate the shortcomings, or even how to pinpoint them. At others, they have some good ideas, but lack the time or the resources to do as much about their concerns as they would like.

The level of personal responsibility which has been mentioned carried with it psychological disadvantages for several of the respondents. One said, "You have to give them so much personal support and assurance -- and so continuously -- that it can become an emotional and psychological drain." Another commented, "You must be their confidante, advisor, analyst, and critic. You not only have all your regular students, but this grown-up kid's problems to deal with, too."

"I find that I lose a lot of the spontaneity I usually enjoy in my classroom when I have a student teahcer. I have had extraordinary learning experiences with kids when I've followed a lead or a hunch, and you just can't 'hip pocket' it very much with most student teachers. It confuses them, and makes them feel insecure and I think it's very important that they come out of their student teaching experience feeling confident." Others expressed agreement with this assessment that the lesson plan sometimes becomes more of a controlling factor than they would like during the student teacher's tenure because of the need for reliable structure which the student teacher either voices or the cooperating teacher judges to exist.

A related disadvantage described was the requirement for the cooperating teacher not only to be well-organized, but "super-organized" -- to make

explicit many of the things they do intuitively or as a result of almost habitual successful experience. One said, "I had never written a lesson plan in such detail in my life until I had my first student teacher and discovered how many gaps I'd been filling in without even thinking about it."

Unreasonably high expectations on the part of some student teachers for the cooperating teacher, the total environment, and the student teaching experience were mentioned as possible disadvantages for cooperating teachers and administrators. "Some of them expect perfection of all of us -- in delivery of instruction, management of students, and all areas of education. It's hard to be perfect enough but you hate to see them become disillusioned. It's hard not to get discouraged yourself when that happens."

A similar kind of disadvantage was described as "unrealistic expectations the student teacher has for himself or herself." Several of the contributors spoke with some emotion about how hard it was to help some student teachers maintain a strong, positive, self-concept in the face of discouragement or in cases where they are becoming aware that they do not have the capability of, or interest in, pursuing a teaching career. Again, it was apparent that there was such a high degree of personal investment in the young people with whom they were working that these practitioners, too, suffered some emotional trauma under these circumstances.

In summary then, this non-random sample listed the following major advantages of having student teachers in a school district or in a particular classroom:

1. The student teacher provides a significant source of additional help which can be channeled into giving more specific attention to individual student needs.

2. The student teacher brings a new perspective, new ideas, new enthusiasm, new challenge to the classroom which affect both the students and the cooperating teacher.

3. The presence of the student teacher causes the cooperating teacher to analyze more carefully what he or she is teaching, as well as why, and how.

4. The presence of a student teacher is a strong motivation for the cooperating teacher to model excellence in teaching.

5. The presence of the student teacher enables those related to him or her to contribute to the continuous development of the profession and to recompense in some measure the contribution of those who have made similar contributions for others in the past.

Primary among the disadvantages listed were:

1. The presence of the student teacher required significant extended time demands: to plan more thoroughly; to spend more time explaining and answering questions; to counsel, direct and instruct.

2. The presence of the student teacher adds emotional and psychological pressures occasioned by the cooperating teacher's heavy sense of responsibility for fulfilling the role adequately.

3. The needs of the student teacher sometimes require better diagnostic and prescriptive skills than the cooperating teacher or system is prepared to deal with.

4. The presence of the student teacher limits some of the flexibility and spontaneity which the experienced teacher finds personally stimulating and which adds to the effectiveness of his or her teaching.

5. Too-high expectations for both the cooperating teacher and the student teacher appear to become stumbling blocks.

It is important to note that none of the individuals who expressed these opinions indicated the slightest hesitancy to continue working with student teachers. It appeared to be a case of "some good news and some bad news" -- but at least, in the eyes of these professionals, the good news clearly outdistances the bad.

Desirable Student Teacher Skills, Knowledge, Attitudes

In terms of the identification of skills, knowledge, and attitudes needed and present in student teachers, a somewhat different situation exists. These professionals viewed the student teacher as only part way along the continuum of preparation for effective teaching -- perhaps a third of the way. They felt that much of the preparation to that point was satisfactory but that it was at best a good beginning. If a "Student Teacher Report Card" were to be prepared using their comments, it might have the following categories, assessment of progress, and suggestions for improvement:

STUDENT TEACHER PROGRESS RECORD - 1981

Category of Knowledge, Skill, or Attitude	Level of Current Progress	Recommendations for Further Improvement
Knowledge of Content to Be Taught	Student teachers customarily arrive at their student teaching experience with adequate or better knowledge of content.	They should have more experience in looking at content in terms of task analysis applied to instruction. They are not proficient in breaking it into learning increments unless the text or material being taught does that for them.
Use of Instructional Materials	Student teachers are aware of, and use a variety of teaching materials which are up-to-date. They also know how to locate and use additional resources for the subject or topic being	They need practice in applying the variety of materials and resources commonly used in connection with whole-group presentations, to the special needs of individual or small groups within the larger group.

	taught. They have limited ability to adjust a variety of curriculum materials to meet needs.	
Teaching Strategies	Student teachers have a relatively limited repertoire of teaching strategies. They work well one-to-one or with one small group, but are often uncomfortable before the total group or managing a number of groups	They need practice in adjusting teaching strategies to a variety of situations to make them more flexible in meeting student needs, to include: a. a variety of strategies for meeting the same learning objective b. the simultaneous use of a combination of teaching/learning strategies within the same classroom (e.g., peer-tutoring, small group, individual work) c. management of a number of small groups within a single classroom d. once entry level of various students has been determined, selection and use of appropriate delivery methods. They also need previous exposure to, and at least limited practice in, using a variety of teaching models, and opportunity to try some of them again during the student teaching experience. They need more practice in the use of open, clearly focused questions and the use of cognitive organizers.
Student Assessment	Student teachers do an effective job of correcting student work. They do not exhibit efficiency in evaluating student entry level, or charting	Student teachers would profit from more pre-student teaching exposure to, and practice with, techniques of assessing individual and group entry levels, in charting student progress,

	individual student progress toward learning goals which they can articulate. They are not as capable as they might be of developing and using appropriate assessment tools. They appear to have good understanding of student learning at the theoretical and cognitive level, but there is little evidence of their conscious use of theory as they work with students.	and in using commercial test information in instruction. They also need to have more experience in how to develop quality teacher-made tests and use them. They need more exposure to, and at least simulated practice with, the application of learning theory to the divergent kinds of situations they might be assigned to, with opportunities for further focused application in the student teaching assignment.
Presentation Skills	Student teachers are less effective in total group presentations than they are in small group or one-to-one contacts. Overall, their oral skills are better than their written skills, and their formal awareness of their personal projection skills (including nonverbal communcation) is minimal. They frequently do not read well orally.	Student teachers can benefit from more practice in using these presentation skills in simulated situations prior to their student teaching experience, and from introspective collaborative critique with the cooperating or supervising teacher during the student teaching experience.
Management Skills	Generally, student teachers demonstrate adequate or better skill in developing a lesson plan which is designed primarily for total group participation (particularly at the secondary level).	Perhaps more than anything else, student teachers need more practice in situations simulating the kinds of management problems they will face as student teachers. They need to be exposed to, and have initial practice with at least a limited variety of discipline strategies prior to their student teaching experiences. They also need the opportunity during the practicum experience to experiment with a variety

		of control methods and to debrief with the cooperating or the supervising teacher.
	They tend to lack confidence in dealing with lack of cooperation, disruption, or confrontation and have a limited range of strategies for dealing with such behavior. They do not customarily see the relationship between such things as the classroom arrangement, appropriate selection of curriculum, type of activities planned, to student management/ control.	They need to have opportunities to design alternative learning environments designed specifically to speak to various management situations.
Planning	Student teachers have very good skills in how to write a unit of study. They efficiently identify short-term objectives and lay out implementation for them. They do not exhibit much skill in looking at long-term objectives or in accommodating diversity. Their day-to-day lesson plans are not of the same quality as their unit plans.	Student teachers need more help in the development of lesson plans which give them an opportunity to try a variety of approaches in terms of classroom management, grouping arrangements, teaching strategies, use of materials, appropriate placement of students--to consciously build a "real life" simulation around a set of organizers, to try it out, and to critique for "fit." And regardless of the length of the student teaching experience, they need to spend some time considering the long-range learning objectives for a given set of students and understanding how what they are teaching relates to that.
Problem-Solving Skills	Student teachers are not well-equipped to be effective problem-solvers, either personally or professionally.	Student teachers, as much as students in any scientific discipline, need extensive exposure to, and practice with, effective

	They have limited skills in doing action research around learning problems; they do not have strategies for finding out about the school to which they are assigned-- what the rest of the staff (particularly in areas outside their own) are like; characteristics of the community; unique processes of the school (e.g., record-keeping); rationale and philosophy of administration; how to respond when signals are changed (e.g., when the class period is shortened or extended without advance warning); ability to plan ahead and to project consequences.	problem-solving techniques. As classrooms become more and more diversified, analytic skills will be called upon more and more. Practice in solving real problems should come at all points in the teacher training continuum so that these important skills are internalized to the extent that they can be drawn on whenever they are needed-- in dealing with student disruption, confrontation with a supervising teacher, the development of an IEP, or a long-range plan for an entire class of students.
Personal Communication	Student teachers entering the field at the present time, are, as a group, significantly better communicators than they were even a few years back. They are enthusiastic, cooperative, and good models for students. They tend to take more initiative than they did in the past. They express their disappointments and frustrations more openly and they have higher expectations of themselves, their cooperating and supervising teachers, and their training programs.	In spite of their overall increase in self-confidence, most student teachers could profit from more practice in how to be more assertive in positive ways, how to confront effectively (students and supervisors), and how to resolve conflict at all levels. Particularly, they need to gain confidence in trying things which may not work and negotiating with those in supervisory positions for that opportunity. They need practice in being diplomatic while disagreeing and accomodating while maintaining their integrity. And they need to practice accepting criticisms objectively.
	They are less likely to accept a subservient role, although they frequently expect students	

	to accept their direction without question. They are extremely responsive to criticism and tend to take it personally, whether it comes from supervisors or from students.	
Professional Attitude	Student teachers arrive at their practicum assignment with a strong sense of dedication and professionalism. They sincerely want to do well and to be successful. They are open to new ideas and are willing to contribute. Generally, they have much self-confidence. They almost always start off liking students, although this feeling sometimes changes when conflicts arise. They do not exhibit much concern beyond the immediate environment of their assignment. Many of them seem naively unaware of the equity issues which impinge on the day-to-day work in the classroom including race, ability, handicapping condition, and have no clear philosophical framework from which to deal with those issues.	Student teachers need to be better prepared for the discrepancy which is likely to exist between the textbook world and the actual student teaching world. They need to practice ways of dealing personally with frustration and anger. They need exposure to as wide a variety of different cultural and economic situations as is possible in a practicum setting extensive enough to enable them to feel a genuine sense of what divergence is like, and what its consequences are for teachers.
Personal Characteristics	Most student teachers come with a very satisfactory set of personal characteristics. They customarily have a high energy level, are highly motivated, and not easily discouraged; they display a	Educators responsible for choosing and training student teachers should continue to be more and more selective in the process, keeping in mind that the job of teaching will likely become more difficult rather than more simple.

reasonably high degree of intelligence and a pleasing since of humour; they are generally diplomatic; but in most cases, they can profit from more deliberate polishing of these characteristics particularly as they proceed through their student teaching experience. While there is little evidence that such characteristics as empathy or sensitivity can be programmed into student teachers who have little of them, it is important to keep trying to find ways to do that since they are so important for teacher success.	Student teachers need deliberate training in ways to be more securely self-analytical; they need to be trained in how to program for their own self-improvement and how to accept feedback without trauma. They need to see themselves as perpetual learners.

Reading through this list may call to mind the 1,130 items made light of earlier in this paper, and, indeed, it is impossible to carry out all (or even most) of these recommendations within the framework of the present teacher training structure. Repeatedly, the word "practice" appears, and in this context, practice does not mean single exposure. Instead, it means sufficient repetition that some kind of mastery is achieved, and this takes a great deal more training time; an almost universally accepted need which virtually no one is seriously attempting to meet. Bruce Joyce, regular commentator on the training of teachers, frequently notes wryly that beauticians are required to undergo a period of on-the-job training prior to licensing which is several times as long as that required for student teachers.

But merely adding time without changing the present program is not likely to add significantly to the effectiveness of the student teacher and the

subsequent improvement of the teaching/learning process. There are other factors, organizational and instructional, which must be considered.

The final section of this paper will suggest an alternative training program, taking these factors into account. None of the ideas suggested are revolutionary -- or perhaps even very controversial in the minds of many. Many of them have been suggested in some way within the past few years. But their reiteration makes them no less difficult to carry out. The implications for misplaced professors whose courses have been eliminated, the invasion of sacred domains, the rigorousness of expectations for those who work with prospective teachers are formidable.

Many of us carry scars acquired in previous repeated attempts to institute changes within the educational bureaucracy, and know that a serious attempt to make changes of this scope can not be undertaken easily. But the need is serious and worth thoughtful consideration. There is some evidence teachers in service become "frozen" in their professional improvement sometime early in their careers, never to change substantially. If this is true, we must find ways to provide them with some kind of professional stimulation which will enable them not only to continue to be more effective personally, but also to influence the frozen ones around them.

The following plan is offered as a possible way of providing the new professional with such a strong shot of significant professionalism that he or she will be able to resist the pressures to freeze and will continue to grow and develop.

Alternative: Problem-based Teacher Training Program

This proposal is made in the hope that it will stimulate thinking of thoughtful educators in the direction of a more professional, scholarly approach to teacher training which is nonetheless pragmatic and realistic. It

is an attempt to counteract what the author perceives to be a dangerous swing toward a very mechanistic and fragmented technical training.

The major features of the proposed alternative would be:

1. a plan for total collaboration and management including jointly-appointed teacher's college personnel and public school personnel who would plan for, implement, monitor, and evaluate the program from selection to certification.

2. a curriculum having four major dimensions: educational problem-solving, essential communication skills, strategies for working in and changing educational organizations, and content mastery.

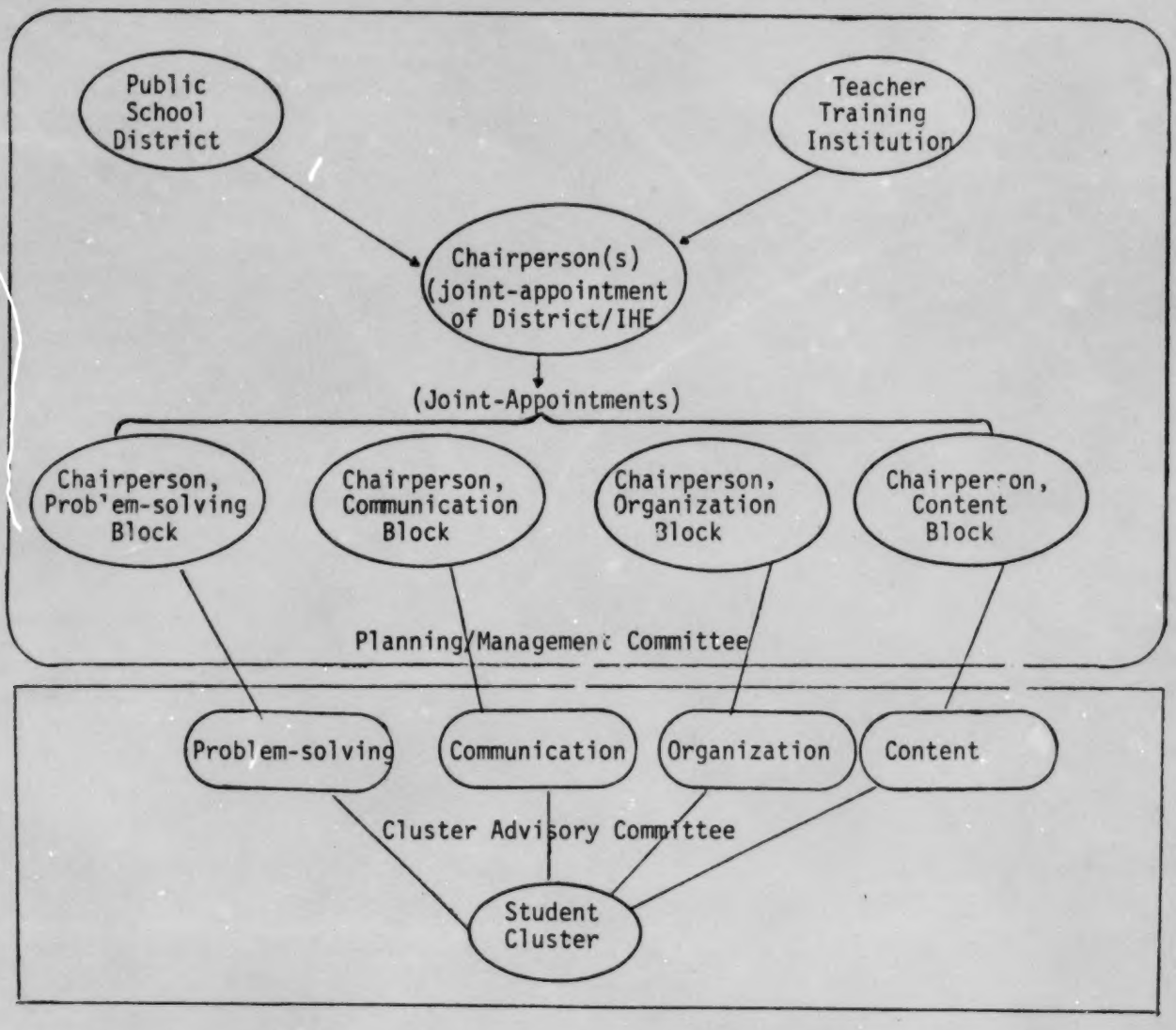
3. an expanded time frame to include at a minimum a fifth year of preparation.

Collaborative Management Team

As illustrated in Figure 1, the teacher training management team would be headed by one or two individuals who have co-equal responsibility for the administration of the program and who also have recognized status and rank in both the school district and the college of education. This implies that they would have whatever academic credentials are necessary and whatever successful practical experience is needed. They should also have proven leadership skills in working with their colleagues.

These individuals would work with a planning/management committee made up of chairpersons (also joint university/public schools appointees) for each of three curriculum components: problem-solving, communication skills, and organizational studies plus a major advisor from a content area. This planning/management committee would establish policy and procedures for the management and conduct of the program. Each of the steering committee members would head a group of 5-6 staff members having similar assignments whose

Figure 1. Collaborative Management Model



responsibility would be to provide input for the master plan and to serve as a part of separate advisory committees for a cluster of student teachers. Each candidate for a teaching certificate would work with one of these committees made up of representatives of each of the four curriculum components, as a part of a cluster/support system made up of student teachers preparing for the same general assignment.

Problem-Centered Curriculum

The entire pre-teaching sequence would be based almost exclusively on practice and active problem-solving and would take on many aspects of an effective modern problems social science course. The student/faculty advisory cluster would use the students' own past and present learning experiences (including their teacher training) as the major laboratory for studying such problems as how people learn, what constitutes an effective and an ineffective learning environment, how the environment can be manipulated to maximize learning, how personal interactions enhance or detract from learning, how educational organizations work and how their operation affects student learning, and how to establish appropriate learning sequences for the needs of a diverse set of students.

Rather than focusing on hundreds of relatively discrete competencies, this curriculum would focus on the actual educational problems existing in the environment. Training in theory and practice would be built in as the situation required through on-site experience in the schools or through role-playing or other simulations.

There would be a scope and sequence identified by the steering committee which would provide the framework into which the skills and knowledge called for and learned within the problem-solving contexts could be fitted. Gaps in

the learning which were not filled naturally as a result of the focus on real problems could be inserted at the suggestion of the advisory committee.

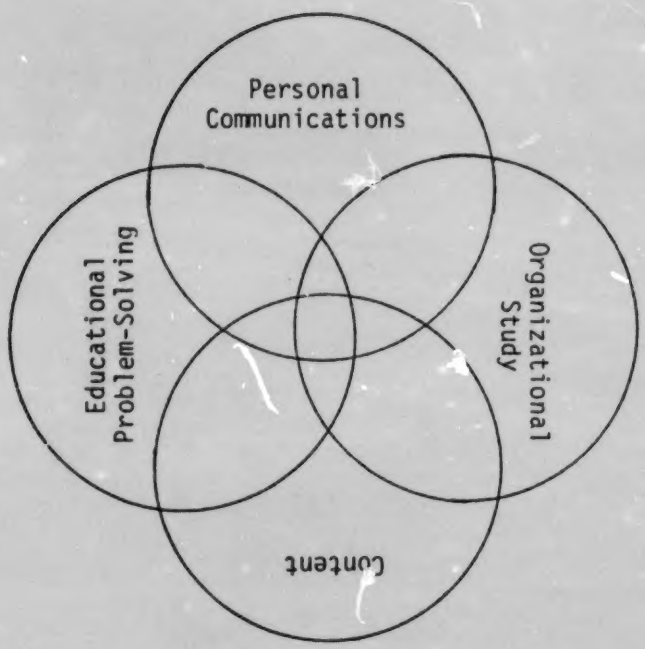
The pre-teaching student's content courses could provide part of the laboratory for critiquing, analyzing, and planning for improvement of instruction, or content could be taught separately and included in the joint preparation of the student teacher at the point where the actual practice teaching of the content takes place. However, the presence of the advisor from the content area in the training cluster would serve to maintain better communication between subject matter specialists and education specialists than has formerly been the case. Figure 2 provides a diagramatic representation of the curriculum model, which is explained in more detail in the following paragraphs.

Problem-Solving Block

The rationale for such a strong emphasis on pragmatic problem-solving at such an early stage of a student's pre-teaching career is that it may be a way of investing the new professional with a genuine sense of efficacy in dealing with real educational situations from the very beginning of his or her career. Individuals who are able to move quickly and effectively through a problem-solving sequence should feel more adequate and be more able to deal with the various situations which arise. This sense of efficacy should contribute to a better self-concept, should engender willingness to tackle other difficult problems, and could enable the young professionals to model personal competency for others, including the students with whom they work.

As our society becomes increasingly diverse, our strategies for dealing with it will need to become more numerous and more flexible. As the problems of society become more difficult, we need to develop effective coping mechanisms in teachers which, in fact, enable them to live in more stressful times while feeling less stressed. Pat answers and "by the book" models will become

Figure 2. Problem-Solving Curriculum Model



less and less effective in dealing with the kind of future which is described for us by experts.

Student teachers need much more exposure to alternative approaches to different learning problems and more practice in personally identifying creative ways to deal with the same learning problem. They need to feel comfortable without knowing "the right answer." They need to learn to live with ambivalence, to maintain an open ended stance and be comfortable without immediate closure. They need enough freedom and self-confidence to be willing to try a well-thought out strategy, have it fail, and determine a new direction without undue frustration on their part. If they find themselves in a milieu which does not encourage experimentation, they need to have appropriate assertiveness and negotiation strategies to enable them to deal with potentially-limiting circumstances successfully.

Communication Block

Nearly everyone would agree that it is extremely important for teachers and student teachers to communicate well with students, and in more than one way. They need to be able to present formally and they need to relate informally. They need to "read" the unspoken language expressed in behavior and respond to it. They need to be aware of the silent messages they are constantly sending which enhance or inhibit the learning of their students.

But teachers have a growing need to communicate with other adults as well. The time when the classroom teacher entered his or her room, closed the door, and managed a discrete group of children in near-isolation and with almost complete autonomy has largely passed. Even in places where such cooperative arrangements as team teaching have not had an influence, almost all teachers must interact at least to some extent with other professionals within the educational setting. Special education resource teachers provide help to

teachers receiving mainstreamed students (and sometimes team with them to provide learning for the larger group). Specialists in the areas of physical education, art, and music work regularly with students from the regular teacher's classroom. Other special services such as speech therapy are provided to students who need them. These services are effective to a greater or lesser degree dependent, in part, on the skill of the human beings involved in communicating with each other. These skills in the teacher training program are too often left to chance or learned in a very cursory way, rather than systematically and integrated over time into actual classroom practice.

As society becomes more complex and positive human interactions more critical, student teachers and their teachers must learn and constantly polish communication skills which will facilitate effective and productive living. For these reasons, the communications block is important.

Organizational Study

Even as communication between and among human beings is becoming increasingly important, even so is it becoming more and more important for individuals to understand the larger communication involving the organizations of which they are a part. They need to understand their place in the organizations and to have strategies for productively affecting at least their part of it. And they need to understand the effect that the nature of the organization has on the people who work in it.

Individuals who work in organizations no longer blindly accept the policies, practices, and procedures which affect them, but they do not have much understanding of how organizations work or how the various structures within organizations impinge on one another. Most of all, they do not see themselves as being an integral part of the organization with ability to influence it in significant ways. If students come to their first teaching experiences with

some concept of organizational development, health, and behavior, they will be more prepared to work effectively to improve the organization so that they will be better able to lead personally productive lives in tune with it.

Postscript

Those who are dedicated to making education better are faced with difficult times. Increasing demands must be met with stabilizing or diminishing resources. We must learn how to do more with less. We can respond to the demands by letting the problems result in traumatizing, debilitating fear and frozen inactivity. Or we can engage in frenetic, meaningless activity which is, finally, even more defeating. Or we can choose another alternative: accept the challenge to apply our own best problem-solving processes on a broad scale in order to prove that human beings have enough knowledge and enough power to make progress, in spite of frustrations and handicaps.

If the teacher training institution, the public schools, and the student teachers they prepare have already decided that the "good times" are in the past and have accepted the premise that erosion of resources leaves them no alternative but lessened effectiveness, they will, indeed, have less and less impact and will succumb to the self-fulfilling prophecy. Worse, they will communicate to the next generation that same lack of optimism and effectual confrontation with a changing reality. The prospect of such a chain of self-fulfilling prophesies is a gloomy one. But if we choose to use our best talents and invest the next generation of educators with skills to meet the emerging problems with confidence, the future will be bright. I vote for the latter.

Reference Note

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The Cooperating Teacher:

Who? What? Why? When? How? and Whither?

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The education of teachers is high purpose, little substance and less intensity. There is no more important work which receives less critical attention and demands so little of the participants. Teacher education has been called the slum of American education. While this may be accurate and possibly satisfying to the phrase maker, it is the classic example of blaming the victim. Still, though, teacher education is asked to select and prepare the custodians, the classroom teachers, of our national treasure, our youth; not only initially prepare, but help maintain the teacher's effectiveness for a lifetime of service. That is, indeed, high purpose. The high, lofty purpose is inversely related to the flow of social resources: the money and talent needed. That seems odd, particularly, in a country where "you get what you paid for" is such a prevalent theme. This discontinuity between our mouth and our hand, our purpose and our support, has a number of results. Major among them is the continuing puzzlement and angst over the outcomes of school and the quality of teaching and, increasingly again, teacher education. These issues and social attitudes have not left teacher educators unmarked. Over the last twenty years we have been seeking for that "something that works." Our disspirited confusion has sent us wondering, like academic outcasts, through the bizarre in search of "innovations" and magical training variables.

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And, of course, we have come up with our genie lamps and secret potions with enchanting names like "micro-teaching" and "interaction analysis." We have our models of teaching and simulation and the like. About eight or ten years ago, though, people began to ask, "What next after interaction analysis?" "Is there life after micro-teaching?" We seemed to have reached the outer limit of our creativity, so we began to look back to an older tradition in teacher education. We began to criticize the university as a sterile, artificial place in which to train teachers. We began to harken back to the beginnings of teacher education in the demonstration schools of Francis deSales and Pestalozzi and the others. We decided, then, to put prospective teachers "in the field," put them out there with children in "the real world." We rediscovered "learning by doing." Not the make believe world of micro-teaching and peer teaching and simulation, but "doing" doing. Of course, we had always used the field, even when teacher education was completely campus based, and each training institution had a demonstration school attached. Yes, we have long had a student teaching experience as the final "rite of passage" in teacher education programs. The new spirit, the new movement was an extension of this form. We decided apparently that field experiences would occur early and often. In my own state we have a new design for teacher preparation which mandates that each teacher trained be provided with field experiences equivalent to, or more than, time in student teaching. In other words, an additional quarter of field experiences is to be provided for all training programs.

So, field experiences have become the new faith, the new religion of teacher education. And, in the process, the cooperating teachers have become our new "sacred cows." They are the ones who make both the traditional and the new field experiences a success or a failure, valuable or worthless. In

our guilt over our past failings and inadequacies as teacher educators, we have leaped to acknowledge how important the cooperating teacher is. It is difficult to acknowledge how important the cooperating teacher is. It is difficult to come across an article on teacher education that does not have reference to the popularity of student teaching and the perceived importance of the cooperating teacher by the student teacher. And while this praise is wide, it is thin. These seemingly harsh speculations -- arising perhaps from the distresses of a long Ohio winter -- are aimed at greater clarity and honesty about teacher education. And it should be clear that while I may appear to be debunking and probing this new religion and its sacred cows, I have no theology, innovative or traditional, to quickly put in its place.

The Cooperating Teachers: Two Scenarios

If one relied on the written descriptions of the student teaching experience and the policy statements surrounding the work of the cooperating teacher, a scenario like the following would emerge. The university selects outstanding practitioners, people recognized for skill in teaching, currentness of curricular materials and approaches, and the ability to work with teachers-in-training. These selected individuals share, in general, the educational philosophy of the college or department for whom they are performing a professional service. The cooperating teacher is familiar with the major aims of the training program, so has a good idea of what has gone before in the student teacher's preparation. The university assures that, at least to some level of proficiency, the cooperating teacher has either been trained in the skills of clinical supervision and analysis of teaching.

The university supervisor and the cooperating teacher are a team devoted to a common end: providing a rich and varied clinical learning experience for

an individual ready to test his or her professional competency. They are together in the realization that the teacher-in-training must be helped and supported, but ultimately he or she must be judged. In this regard, they are both gatekeepers to the profession. They are society's agents to ensure children are kept from incompetent teachers. For both these helping and judging tasks, the university supervisor and the cooperating teacher have worked out shared procedures and standards of evaluation. While the university bears the legal and institutional responsibility for evaluating and grading the student teaching experience, there is a clear understanding that the cooperating teacher will have a major say in determining the evaluation and grading of the student teacher.

While they cannot meet as frequently as either would like, they "conference" over the student teacher's progress three or four times during the semester or quarter of student teaching. However, if troubles develop, the frequency of contacts is increased, until the problem is resolved. These two, then, function as a team, sharing expertise to introduce a younger colleague-to-be into the profession.

The cooperating teacher's relationship with the student teacher is a unique and special one. Normally, he or she operates from a set of unified principles or a tested game plan on how to best stage the experience. The cooperating teacher gradually introduces the student teacher into the teaching situation, sequencing the task in increasing levels of difficulty or complexity, until the student teacher is ready to take over full responsibility for instruction.

Traditions in elementary and secondary schools differ concerning whether or not the cooperating teacher stays in the room when the student teacher assumes teaching responsibility. Whether or not the cooperating teacher is

present in the room is a function of what is best for the class and the student teacher. Either way, however, the cooperating teacher and the student teacher are in close and regular communication. The cooperating teacher gives the student teacher increasingly higher levels of autonomy as the experience progresses. The student teacher usually has the opportunity to teach content and method which is of special interest to him or her. Often, the student teacher introduces the cooperating teacher to new material being developed at the university. As a result, the cooperating teacher, who typically receives a very small stipend or honorarium for service is compensated by the stimulation of encountering new knowledge. Most rewarding, however, is the partnership with educators from the university in the work of introducing the next generation of teachers into the work of the schools.

This, then, is how the scenario reads. And, while it may, in fact, fit the reality of some situations, the scenario below is, in my experience, more valid.

The education major completes a number of courses which are prerequisites to student teaching. No one sits down and carefully reviews the candidate's record and performance to date to decide suitability for student teaching. He or she is in the placement pool and assigned to a school and a cooperating teacher in a hasty and arbitrary manner. Rarely is this important match made on what would be considered educationally defensible grounds. Rarely are the following questions asked or answered. "Is the school an exemplary environment in which to take these initial steps toward full professional status?" "Is the assigned cooperating teacher a good role model of the teacher, besides being competent in the formal requirements of being a cooperating teacher." "Is the match between the personalities of the cooperating teacher and the student teacher a rational one?" Could it be that the questions asked are

more like the following, "Where are the schools that are easy to drive to?" "Why search for the best teachers who may possibly intimidate us or challenge our approach?" "Why not go with our loyal graduates?"

In many cases the university has little say in who actually becomes the cooperating teacher. Often principals assign the student teachers on other terms than educationally supportable ones. "Who will I reward by this?" "Who will I punish?" "Who needs some 'in-servicing' from the university?" "Who needs the stimulation of having a student teacher?"

The communication between the cooperating teacher and the university supervisor would seem to be of critical importance for the type of cooperative partnership described earlier. But clear, clean, specific communication, in my judgment, is what does not happen. Instead, the communication between the cooperating teacher and the university supervisor is cluttered by what I refer to as four issue areas: the event; the substance; the games; and the status gap.

First, the event. Here I am referring to the conference where the two sit down to carefully plan the student teaching assignment, review progress and jointly evaluate it. My suspicion is that it is a "non-event." If an orderly, task-oriented conference is held, it is a rarity. There are quick conversations in a crowded, noisy teachers lounge. There are brief exchanges during school in the hall outside the cooperating teacher's classroom and there are sorry-to-bother-you-at-home telephone contacts. Even these are infrequent, though. The conference turns out to be a low priority event for both cooperating teacher and university supervisor, and as such it is often put off and often cancelled. One reason it is low priority is that it is not really in the teacher's job description. But the more important reason has to do with the substance of the conference to which we turn now.

This second area of substance refers to the richness of the exchange and its value in developing the student teacher. It is my contention that there is very little substance to the great majority of these conferences. Pleasantries are expressed, cliches about education are exchanged and vague evaluative comments, such as "Underneath, Peggy is really a very hardworking, serious girl." "Ralph has shown a lot of growth this semester. He's a different person than when he came into my class." "Frankly, I had some reservations about Wendy at the beginning of the quarter, but she has really come on lately." What underlies this lack of substance is that the goals of student teaching are vague, and the cooperating teacher not only has not been trained in clinical supervision skills, but does not have a clear understanding of what the university expects hims to do. This, of course, is because the university has not decided what it believes should go on, what constitutes success as a student teacher, what constitutes minimally acceptable performance. So this lack of basic understanding and technical know-how leads into the third issue area, the game.

By game, I refer to the artificial dance between the two. The game has a "let's pretend" quality. "Let's pretend I really have a clear idea of what I am going to do with your student teacher." "Let's pretend I have a system, a method of taking my student teacher through a series of instructional activities to systematically expose him or her to areas of professional knowledge you and I agree are important." "Let's pretend you are seriously going to take my remarks into consideration when making your careful, summative evaluation of my student teacher's performance." "Let's pretend that we have real standards and that once upon a time we really acted as gatekeepers and held someone back from becoming a teacher."

The fourth and final issue area is status. True communication is difficult enough between friends and peers. However, between people from different cultures, communication is a strained and awkward thing. The university and the public school are just that, different cultures. And while they seem similar on the surface, both being educational institutions and both sharing the common language, how they operate and what they value are quite different. One major difference between the university and the public schools is the way status is assigned and distributed throughout the organizations. For example, in the university the people who supervise student teachers probably have the lowest status within a very status-conscious community. Supervising student teachers is considered a labor intensive, low knowledge, low skill job which is typically assigned to newcomers or teaching associates. To university faculty members, happiness is never having to leave the campus. This condition, of course, undermines the perceived importance of the work. It is similar to teaching freshmen composition. Everyone makes pious statements about its importance, but then works feverishly not to get stuck teaching it. On the other hand, the public schools have a very flat status profile: administrators and teachers (haves and have nots.) Having your own student teacher can be a sign of importance or favor, though. It is like being asked by the plantation owner to break in a new slave. What I am suggesting is that the two members of the student teaching team, the cooperating teacher and the university supervisor, exist in two different status systems with very different values. While the university supervisor usually values research and scientific inquiry, the cooperating teacher values the practical, what works. While the university supervisor values the new in curriculum and instruction, the cooperating teacher values the tried and true. While largely unstated, their visions of the good student teacher are at odds. To the degree that

their values are articulated, the potential for conflict and for the student teacher becoming a sought-for trophy of war is increased. Normally, though, the representatives of these two cultures meet in the student teaching encounter and, since the stakes are so low, peace reigns. The price of peace, however, may be that the power and vitality of student teaching is sucked dry.

These four issue areas, then, (the non-event quality of the conference, the lack of substantive exchange between the university supervisor and the cooperating teacher, the artificial gaming which fills the void and the status-culture gap between the two) contribute to undermining the work of the cooperating teacher.

Some Questions for Exploration

These two scenarios of the work of the cooperating teacher and the four issue areas provoke a number of questions and searching for answers may contribute to our greater understanding of what actually goes on in the world of the cooperating teacher.

The cooperating teacher -- How are these gatekeepers of the profession selected?

How are they trained? Is there a consistent set of behaviors demonstrated by cooperating teachers? How do people learn to be cooperating teachers? From their cooperating teacher? From a university's training program? From being supervised as a teacher? From one's own head?

Why do people become cooperating teachers? What is their motivation? What are their rewards? Internal? External?

Do elementary school cooperating teachers differ from secondary school cooperating teachers? Are there major differences across subject fields?

The cooperating teacher and the student teacher -- What are the dimensions of the status relationships between the two?

What are the primary learnings from the cooperating teacher? Professional skills and strategies? Conception of teaching as a profession? Norms of the workplace (custodial attitude towards children, "Keep administration at arms length," "The best parent is an unseen parent," "Survival is all you can hope for as a teacher").

What is the quality and the nature of the communication between cooperating teachers and the student teachers? Is it technical? Moral?

How does the student teacher learn from the cooperating teacher? By imitation (modeling)? By concept learning (principles of individualizing in this class)? By patterning (Cooperating teacher has a routine set up and "it" teaches the student teacher)? When does the cooperating teacher turn the class over to the student teacher? Is there a rationale?

When and how does the cooperating teacher decide that the student teacher "has made it" or "not made it?" Or do cooperating teachers even ask that question? What happens when there is a mismatch (learning style or personality) between the two?

How does the relationship change over time? From student teacher as intruder to adopted child? Is there a "hostage" syndrome in this relationship?

What happens when the student teacher is a better teacher than the cooperating teacher? Is more attractive or lovable? Is smarter and more knowledgeable?

The cooperating teacher and the university supervisor -- What is the balance of status between the cooperating teacher and the university supervisor and how does it affect their work?

How often and how effective (intense, focused, task oriented) are their conferences? Is it a real information exchange or is it an empty ritual?

The cooperating teacher and institutional considerations -- How and why is the cooperating teacher selected? As payoff from principal/department chairman in a low prestige, low reward environment? As a reward for excellence in teaching? As recognition for ability as a teacher trainer? As recognition by a former professor that the individual is "still on the team?" As a way to provide inservice education for a faculty member who has fallen behind?

Who controls the selection process? The university department? The university student teaching office? Individual faculty members? The building principal? The department chairman? Chance?

What institutional rewards are given for being a cooperating teacher?

Does the university cooperate with the cooperating teacher? Or does the cooperating teacher cooperate with the university? What does "cooperating" really mean?

Does the cooperating teacher provide official evaluation of student teaching? What are the arrangements for feedback on the performance of the student teacher?

Miscellaneous questions -- Is the popularity of student teaching based on its value in making someone a skilled teacher? Or because it is real and action-oriented as opposed to abstract and intellectually demanding?

Why do so few people get failed by cooperating teachers?

What does collective bargaining do to the cooperating teacher and his or her relationships with the university in the task? What would be the effect of a "free market" approach to cooperating teaching whereby the student

teacher selected and paid his own cooperating teacher? Why, in a reward-oriented culture do we reward being a cooperating teacher so meagerly?

Conclusion

There is, admittedly, a somewhat discourteous, doubting, and possible even fractious quality to these reflections and these questions. It is a mood springing from, first, reading some of the platitudinous literature surrounding the role of the cooperating teacher. It reeks of educational pieties and would surely set a saint's teeth on edge. And, second, it is my belief that there is a great, unexplored energy and power in the student teaching experience, a power that cannot but be helped by questioning the orthodoxies and some of the sanctimonious mumbo jumbo surrounding this sacred cow.

ED223575

Satisfaction with the Student Teaching Experience: A Multiple Regression Approach

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When I was first contacted about participating in this conference, it was suggested that I comment on research questions and strategies that might apply to a large scale study of student teaching. Being the honest soul that I am, I quickly pointed out that apart from hearing of the experiences of friends and former students, I really have no special knowledge of the student teaching process, nor even of the extensive literature that doubtless already exists in this field. Rather, such knowledge and skills as I can claim are largely methodological. Naturally, many of these research methods should apply to the study of student teaching, just as they apply to most problems in the social sciences and education, but there is nothing in my bag of tricks that would apply peculiarly to this problem. In response I was told, in effect, "That's OK. We want your ideas anyway. A fresh perspective might be welcome." So, here I am, ignorance and all, about to regale you with ideas on how to study a topic that every person in this room knows more about than I.

However, I will console myself, if not the members of this audience, with the observation that I do have some experience in research planning, and I do have a set of preconceptions and prejudices that I am happy to share with whomever will listen. In particular, I have some notions about the overall strategy and the first steps that one might take in laying out a field study of the size and complexity suggested by this topic. My paper will thus consist of outlining a few of these steps, and of examining a few possibilities for approaches and for variables of interest.

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As I sat down to organize my thoughts about the study of student teaching, I happened to recall a description of the research process given by a distinguished colleague at the University of Texas, Professor Mabel Wandelt. Dr. Wandelt has written that a good research question, like the pearl formed by an oyster, always begins with an irritant. That is, there is something in the back of your mind that bothers you, but that you can't quite isolate or dislodge. However, with enough work, pain, and luck this irritant may finally emerge as that pearl of great price, a good research question.

What, I asked myself, would be the irritant if I were setting out to do research on student teaching? After thinking about the question for some time, the irritant began to take on vague shape. As Bob Hughes pointed out so well this morning, in the United States at least the student teaching experience has long been institutionalized as a key ingredient in the preparation of professional elementary and secondary school teachers. On the face of it this idea makes a great deal of sense. The essence of any profession, of which teaching is certainly one, is the first acquisition of a set of special skills, and then the application of those skills to people in situations demanding the expertise of the professional. In order that the student may perfect this expertise, every profession has a "clinical" stage of training, where the candidate must learn to exercise his or her skills on real people in real situations. However, this clinical training in a profession is always carried out under the supervision of a mentor or supervisor who is equipped to bear the full responsibility whenever it should become necessary. Furthermore, the relationship between mentor and student is usually that of an apprenticeship in which it is expected that not only the techniques, but also something of the values and standards of the profession, will be instilled in the novice by the master. Thus, the medical profession has its clinical

rounds and internships, the legal profession its clinics and clerkships, and so on and on. Just as the other professions devote a relatively large amount of attention and care to this transition stage between the role of student and that of practitioner, so the teaching profession should devote similar care and attention to the preparation of its next generation of representatives.

Why then do I feel -- admittedly without a great deal of evidence, but feel nevertheless -- that in the recent past at least the student teaching experience has not been given the same degree of attention and emphasis that clinical training receives in the other professions? Why am I bothered by the observation that student teaching does not seem to be highly regarded by many of the people who go through it, nor even by many of the professionals ultimately responsible for giving this experience to others? Why, to my personal knowledge, have any number of otherwise bright and well-motivated students been turned away from a teaching career by this experience? I have known a number of physicians who said that their internship was a gruelling and frustrating experience, but I have never heard one say that it was not worthwhile. Why should it be any different with student teaching?

This set of questions is, for me, the irritant. These questions, in turn, arouse my curiosity about factors in student teaching that make it succeed or fail as valuable clinical training. on the model of the other professions.

However, notice that I am already using that weaselly word, "succeed." Just how is one to measure the success of a student teaching program? Could it be one of those things that is easier to talk about than to do? Since student teaching is part of the total professional training of the aspiring teacher, it is obviously a large, multifaceted affair, difficult to characterize in any simple, unidimensional way. There are going to be many barriers

and complications even to studying it. Among other things, student teaching does not occur in a single context or within a single social institution. Rather, it seems to me that the clinical training of teachers occurs at the interface of at least three quite different social institutions, each of which has a different form of involvement and a different sort of interest in this process. There are, of course. the universities which sponsor student teaching programs as a part, but only a small part, of their educational programs for teachers. Then there are the cooperating school systems, in which student teaching must necessarily lie at the periphery of the total obligation the system must bear. Next there is the teaching profession itself. which has many pressing concerns of its own, among which reconciling conflicting demands of universities and school systems must surely rank pretty far down the scale. The interested outsider might well ask, "Whose baby is student teaching, anyway?" Obviously, student teaching programs existing in this balance among university, school system, and profession do not lend themselves to intervention and manipulation, or even to very close study, without risk of upsetting that equilibrium.

Even from the individual teacher's point of view, practice teaching does not occur in isolation. Rather, it is embedded in a whole context of other experiences and within a time scale that extends far back before the class-classroom situation ever begins, as well as forward into the teacher's actual career. Surely it would be a mistake to try to study student teaching only in terms of the immediate proximal factors in its success or failure in meeting certain goals. Far-flung distal factors in both directions, past and future, must somehow be taken into account in any attempt to evaluate its effectiveness.

Recognizing the complexity of this problem, I began to try to narrow the focus of my concern. Again, borrowing Dr. Wandelt's terminology and imagery, I began to try to outline a crux to the problem, one relatively simple concern about which a variety of other research questions might be hung. As an image of the problem, think of a geodesic dome. Those of you familiar with such structures know that they can be made to cover enormous spaces, even though every dome consists only of an interrelated set of small hexagons. Every such dome starts out with one hexagon, to which every other part of the structure will ultimately relate. In building a study of student teaching, what we need is that first question, that initial hexagon, to which all the rest of the questions might relate.

Perhaps one might borrow an obvious approach from other fields. Why not look at student teaching strictly as a training experience, and ask if this training actually does the job it was designed to do? Does some definite, measurable, set of skills, attitudes, and professional qualifications exist that the young teacher is supposed to gain from this experience? If such a set can be defined and measured then a simple study of the effectiveness of student teacher-training should be possible. Just as with any other study of training effectiveness, we could take measures of these skills and attitudes beforehand, and then after the training, and see how much has been gained. Then, perhaps, we would have some gauge of the overall effectiveness of the program. In many other contexts this has proved to be a logical and useful approach.

Yet, how exactly do we do this for student teaching? For example, suppose that we merely set out to measure the improvement in the student teacher's performance. What would we use to measure teaching performance? With this in mind, I examined some of the literature on the evaluation of

teacher performance. Most of the current methods in use are outlined in Jason Millman's new book on the evaluation of teacher performance. What I found is familiar, and perhaps even depressingly familiar, to each of you. To assess teacher performance, you can use such things as measures of actual pupil achievement, or perhaps ratings of the teacher by the students. On the other hand, how relevant are achievement measures taken in a classroom in which the student teacher has played only a minor role for a short period of time? Student ratings barely work in college, and maybe they could be used in high school, but can you really get valid student responses in the lower grades? Then what about systematic classroom observation, or even peer review? What about self-evaluations, not to mention supervisor and cooperating teacher evaluations? The list of ways in which student teacher performance might be evaluated might go on and on, but, unfortunately most such methods have been found to be context-bound, and tied closely to a particular setting and cast of characters. Moreover, the biggest difficulty in doing a before-and-after study of student teacher performance is this: if this is really the student teacher's first experience, what do you use as the "before" base? What is the appropriate measure of teacher performance for one who has never taught before? You might as well try to get an initial reading level for a child who has never had the opportunity to read.

Since simple, before-and-after assessment of performance doesn't seem very promising as a way to evaluate the effectiveness of a student teacher training program, I turned to other ways that have been used to study change in performance. A whole new approach to research carried out in field settings has been developed by Donald T. Campbell and his associates, under the general rubric of "quasi-experimentation." One of the main tools in this approach is the time-series analysis of concrete behaviors, through which

correlations are established between changes in conditions and changes in performance over time. This approach might shed some light on the effectiveness of the student teaching process in changing specific teaching behaviors, provided that some relatively simple set of relevant behaviors can be defined. This sort of thing is done in some other professional settings: In a medical internship there are a whole host of things such as setting bones and stitching up after surgery that must be practiced, and the supervising physician inspects each successive performance and keeps track of improvement. If we could identify analogous skills in teaching, then the progress of the student teacher could be assessed in a similar way, and the factors that accelerate or retard progress might then be isolated. Perhaps the general effectiveness of the student teacher program might even be approached in this piecemeal way. Next question: Whose list of basic teaching skills are we going to use? Unfortunately, many of the easiest skills to identify and record (e.g. writing beautifully on the blackboard) may not have a whole lot to do with the art of teaching, while others that are critical to teaching success may be very difficult to specify. How much effort and time are we willing to expend on defining, observing, recording, and analyzing a whole repertory of basic teaching behaviors that may turn out not to have much to do with anything? Even so, let us grant that with several million dollars to spend and a large research staff we might come up with a reasonably comprehensive list of such skills. Such a study of changes in behavior over time could then be done. But by whom? Is the cooperating teacher going to be willing to be trained and then to serve as the continuous observer using some highly complex coding scheme? I don't much think so. If not, who are these highly trained and ever-present observers going to be?

In short, phrasing the crux of the problem in terms of extrinsic, objective measures of performance or achievement, and then evaluating change by one of the standard methods of experimentation or quasi-experimentation does not strike me as a particularly attractive or realistic possibility. Furthermore, as we have noted, the student teaching setting is normally a functioning classroom, where many of the traditional forms of research intervention are simply not possible. If there truly are changes brought about by the student teaching experience, and if there are factors that facilitate or inhibit those changes, such changes and such factors are not going to be easy to study *in situ*.

Yet, the initial irritant remains. What is an aspect of student teaching that might serve as a starting place for asking the question about its effectiveness? I feel sure that only a person as naive about this topic as I am would come up with the suggestion that I am about to make. Just remember that I do not know any better.

There is one, built-in, interested observer in the student teacher process, who is uniquely positioned to know and to evaluate what some of the effects of the program actually are. This is, of course, the individual student teacher. The student teacher came into this situation following many years of formal and informal preparation, including being a member of countless classrooms at all levels, seeing dozens of teachers in action, and undergoing preprofessional training in college. Surely these bright young people develop many expectations about the student teaching experience, and the results that it should produce. Are these anticipations and expectations actually being fulfilled? Is this, all in all, a satisfactory growth experience in the light of what the student teacher was led to expect?

Perhaps, then, the effectiveness of the program might first be approached intrinsically through the reactions of the consumer, the student teacher, rather than extrinsically with some professionally-defined or skills-oriented approach. In a word, is the student teacher satisfied with this as a professional experience? Furthermore, not only is it convenient to use the satisfaction of the student teacher as the first criterion of effectiveness of the program, I tend to feel that it is appropriate to start here for other reasons. Having now taught in public schools and universities for more years than I care to remember, I am firmly convinced that the big factors in long term teaching effectiveness are, first, the motivation to teach, or the individual's sheer enthusiasm for the classroom, and second, a deep identification with the professional teacher's role. Coming where it does in the training experience, I believe that student teaching can be critical initially in creating and later in sustaining both of these things. That is, I believe that although the student teaching experience should not necessarily be easy, nor should it necessarily be fun, it should be stimulating, motivating, and satisfying for the young person experiencing it. The reverse of this coin is that the student teaching experience that does not satisfy the student's legitimate needs and expectations can be an important determinant, either of the person's not entering the profession, or in forming attitudes not conducive to future professional growth.

Thus, I am proposing that the crux of the first research question should be this: What are the factors in student teaching that make it a professionally satisfying, or a professionally unsatisfactory, experience from the point of view of the individual concerned?

Satisfaction is, of course, not the only criterion variable in our proposed study. However, given this criterion, it is not terribly difficult to

think of other factors, both situational and individual, that might influence such a satisfaction measure, and which can then be studied in their own right. If these factors are identified, and turn out to be predictive of student teacher satisfaction or dissatisfaction, we then have the basis for new questions about how these factors relate to each other, and to other features of the situation. Although one might sit down with pencil and paper and draw up lists of the sorts of variables it would be worthwhile to investigate (and, as a matter of fact, shortly I will make a few such speculations), there are other ways to proceed with the initial stages of the investigation. For example, since virtually all current public school teachers have gone through student teaching, their opinions and reactions might be used to generate ideas about the variables to be examined further. One method for doing this is a variation on a technique introduced about thirty years ago by Professor John Flanagan of Pittsburgh University in an industrial psychology context. This is called the technique of "critical incidents," and would go something like this. A random sample of teachers who have gone through student teaching programs at a variety of universities and school locations up to, say, ten years ago, might be asked two simple things. The first is, "Do you recall your student teaching as a satisfactory or an unsatisfactory experience?" Then: "Without using names, please give a brief description of an incident during student teaching that helped form the opinion you expressed above." When a sample of these critical incidents has been obtained, they are grouped together under "satisfactory" or "unsatisfactory," and analyzed for common underlying factors that seemed to lead to the judgments expressed. In this way, a list of factors for potential investigation could be developed and refined.

Of course, it is not hard to think of groups of variables or factors that can be related to student teacher satisfaction. Several groups of these that came readily to mind were:

1. Personal characteristics of the student teacher, such as age, sex, background, etc.
2. Academic characteristics of the student teacher, such as SAT score, the grade point average in college, major field, etc.
3. Characteristics of the particular student teaching assignment, including subject, level, class size and mix, school characteristics, characteristics of the particular cooperating teacher, etc.
4. Characteristics of the particular student teaching program, including prerequisites, actual amount of supervision per student, conferences, and so forth.
5. The individual's prior expectations for the student teaching program.
6. The school administration's expectations of the student teachers and cooperating teachers.
7. University-established goals for the program.
8. Cooperating teacher perceptions of individual student performance.

This list is hardly exhaustive, of course, and each of these groups of factors could be divided into numerous subtopics and subscales. Part of such information would come from the student teacher, part from the university, and still other parts from the cooperating teacher and school. Blind cross-coding could be used to preserve the anonymity of the student teachers and other respondents, thus helping to insure candor. Obviously such a list of potential variables of interest could go on an on, and I am not so qualified as most of you to suggest possibly relevant factors. Some of these things are brought to the situation by the individual student teacher, and measures are available

either from the student or from the record. Other items of information would be based on the reactions or responses of the student teacher to his or her particular experience. Still other pieces of information would come from the university or from the cooperating teacher and school. The point is that the suggested information is either readily available, or can be made available with some advance planning and work.

Should this list of variables turn out to be very long, exceeding the capacity of the computer or the patience of the investigators, then some economy of analysis and interpretation could be achieved by preliminary examination of the correlations among sets of these variables that logically should be related. A factor analysis could be carried out for each set of variables such as I have mentioned above, and then those variables that appear highly correlated with the rest, and thus redundant, could be eliminated as adding little or no fresh information.

Once the set of variables of initial interest has been established, then I would suggest that one set of variables at a time be examined for their predictive relationship to student teacher satisfaction. Thus, for example, satisfaction might first be analyzed in terms of personal characteristics of the student teachers. Then we could add in another set of variables, say, for example, those dealing with student expectations. This stepwise procedure would be followed until all variables of potential interest have been included.

In somewhat more technical terms, what I am here proposing is a fairly large-scale multiple regression study, in which satisfaction is taken as the first criterion variable, and various other variables are examined for their predictive power relative to this criterion. More specifically, what I am proposing is a form of group-stepwise regression, in which groups of logically

related variables are entered into the analysis successively, in order to see which sets of variables actually do predict the criterion best. By proceeding in this way, one is able to guide the analysis in order to choose the variables that are predictive, and to discard the other, less promising variables from the study as the analysis progresses. Not too many years ago this very useful stepwise regression technique was seldom used, principally because of the absolutely staggering amount of calculation that is involved for a study of any magnitude. Now, with the computer, even very large-scale studies such as this have become feasible, and indeed, routine.

One of the advantages of approaching this question first through multiple regression is that it permits the simultaneous examination of many variables in the student teaching context, but involves only minimal interference or disruption of the classroom. All the initial measures needed can be gained from questionnaires, or possible interviews, and from the record itself. Furthermore, there is no strict limitation on the kinds of information or variables that may be included. Some variables used may be in the form of numerical measurement, while other may be of a qualitative, yes-no, or categorical type. This mixture of types of data is no big problem for the computer, and requires only a special scheme of "dummy variable" coding when the data are entered.

Where should these data come from, and how much data should there be? Taking the second question first, the only absolute requirement is that there should be more subjects (student teachers) than there are variables in the study. Ideally, if these data are to be statistically stable, and thus capable of translation into the results of further samples, then there should be quite a large initial sample. In principle, such a study could even be done for a single set of student teacher placements growing out of a single

university's program, provided that numbers of student teachers were adequate and that some variation existed in school placement settings and details of the training. However, I would recommend that a number of universities in a number of regions be used if at all possible, in order to guarantee a good bit of variation on factors of background, requirements, and expectations, and in the actual training that student teachers receive. It might even be that the sampling of student teachers could be done in a stepwise way: an initial sample of student teachers could be used for a preliminary analysis, then that sample could be supplemented and a new analysis done, and so on until the investigators are satisfied that the results they are achieving are stable. Nevertheless, even at the outset, it is very important that the data show variability in all the different aspects being studied, and this may require a fairly large initial sample.

As I have already suggested, once the data have been assembled and coded, the analysis can be done in routine ways by computer. However, a massive interpretive task remains. What do these variables and their apparent relationships actually represent in the process of student teaching? What is the meaning of the relationships that will emerge among the variables themselves, quite apart from their ability to predict student teacher satisfaction? Such questions will be explored through subsidiary analyses, showing how the variables might suggest underlying relationships and more general factors in the situation. Are any of the variables found to be predictive of things that might be changed in a given program, or are they simply built-in features of such programs? For example, we might reasonably be interested in sets of variables dealing with student teacher expectations as they relate to satisfaction. Do these accord with the realities of the situation as viewed by the cooperating teacher, or as taught by the university faculty? Could satisfac-

tion, and thus one aspect of the effectiveness of the program, be improved by a better meshing of expectation and reality? As one gets further and further in examining a set of such interrelationships, more new questions will emerge, and more possibilities for new analyses and new sets of data will occur to the investigators.

As I have said repeatedly, such an investigation would be only a start, the first step in what doubtless would turn out to be a programmatic series of such studies. It might well be that this first effort and the relations among variables that it reveals would suggest an entirely different line of attack for further studies. Nevertheless, when one is faced with a problem of this inherent complexity, one must find a starting place -- a relatively simple question, feasible to answer, but which is itself pregnant with possibilities for other studies. To me, at least, the present suggestion forms one reasonable, and reasonably interesting, place to start.

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Student Teaching as Human Project: Pursuing Possibility in Schools

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"The Kingdom of Number is all boundaries," wrote W. H. Auden (1958, p. 128), and I am concerned about the degree to which we are preparing teachers to inhabit such a realm. The technological ethos dominates much of our thinking; publics, as well as school people, talk in calculative terms. The emphasis is on the discrete, the measurable, the predictable. To speak, as John Dewey (1963) did, of the "constant expansion of horizons and consequent formation of new purposes and new responses" (pp. 67-68) is to be at odds with modern-day pragmatism, with the stress on achievement and control.

The reasons for this are evident enough. There is no denying the crisis in education today: the erosion of financial support; the declining test scores; the so-called neglect of "competencies"; the disciplinary problems; the defiance of authority. Wherever we are, we find ourselves continuously bombarded by grass roots and legislative criticisms, flooded with varying and sometimes arbitrary demands. And we are confronting, as never before, the phenomenon of teacher "burn out" and unhappiness due to boredom and a sense of inefficacy, due to the lack of adequate rewards, due partly to the cynicism and the loss of confidence in public schools. We cannot underestimate the difficulties facing us in teacher education; indeed, we have to name and understand them. We have, with as much clarity as we can muster, to counter the misleading messages, resist the scapegoating of the schools. I believe that we ourselves, as teacher educators, are called upon to think, as never before, what we are doing, to define ourselves and articulate our purposes:

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and it seems to me that the quality of our efforts to do these things may affect--indeed, ought to affect--our encounters with all those learning what it signifies to work in the domains of the public schools. Surely, the persons who choose teaching as a profession today must be deliberately empowered to cope with an often inhospitable, deeply uncertain world.

I want to regard them as persons, not as technicians or functionaries. A technician, no matter how skilled, does not have to be personally present to his or her work. It is the technique that counts, the methodology, the learned proficiency, not the conciousness that moves outward to grasp what is involved. A functionary, no matter how efficient, is (as it were) his or her role. It is the management capability that counts, the dependability, the accountability to superiors and to the organization, not the particularity of the individual or the manner in which he or she constitutes the real. In the one case, the primary consideration is training, I believe; in the other it is socialization. My interest is in teaching; and teaching, for me, has to do with releasing people to learn how to learn. It has to do with possibilities and personal discoveries, with events in experience, with the making of connections, with the opening of doors. I want to see student teachers being enabled to create the kinds of situations that provoke students to reach beyond themselves--indeed, to become so concerned about posing questions and seeking answers and working things out that they cannot but act on their own initiatives--and in time begin teaching themselves.

Teaching, as I see it, requires a conception of action rather than behavior. The notion of action involves the taking of initiatives; behavior does not. I would contrast the reflective taking of initiatives to the unreflective, semi-automatic movement through predefined sequences of what is sometimes optimistically called "mastery." A concern for beginnings--for

action rather than behavior--is different from a preoccupation with end-points, with objectives that are predetermined. Indeed, once teachers approach their students as "newcomers," as beginners, those teachers may well open themselves (along with their students) to all sorts of experiential possibilities; most of them, by definition, unpredictable. Say, for example, there is a high school class scheduled to "do" Shakespeare's Hamlet. The teacher can, quite obviously, come in with a list of reading skills he or she hopes to see achieved with a range of information he or she wants to see written down. Ordinarily, the teacher who comes in with such expectations assumes there is a right interpretation of Hamlet, that the play exists somehow objectively, to be penetrated by those who have learned the basics, since the basics provide the key. Obviously a range of sensitivities and understandings are important. The notion of dramatic tragedy must be made clear; so must the fundamentals of Shakespeare's poetic language--the meter, the figures of speech, even the sounds. It may even be helpful to communicate something about Elizabethan England, about the meaning of the throne in Renaissance times, about the Globe Theatre and its influence upon the shape and substance of enacted plays. But my point is that all this should be offered as a beginning not as an end, it should be offered to make it easier for students, each in his or her particular way to bring the play into being in his or her own consciousness. Each one, necessarily, will grasp its meanings in his or her own fashion. If they read well enough--if they are not (to use Jean-Paul Sartre's words, 1965) stupid and inattentive--the students are likely to find themselves opening windows in the actual, taking new perspectives on their own consciousness of father-son relations, loyalties, commitments, responsibilities: and there will be no knowing, no measuring, what individuals among them will come to see and understand. I am convinced

that the kind of teacher who can free students for this sort of imaginative encounter is the one who (himself or herself) realizes full well that Hamlet is always an open question--for the teacher himself or herself, as well as for the young. Such a teacher takes a risk, inevitably, because the skills he or she feels bound to teach are warranted by the degree to which they contribute to the student's efforts to go beyond what they are taught, to explore (within their own experiences) untapped possibility. The teacher who, on the other hand, arrives with Hamlet already finished, as it were, who thinks in terms of identifiable end-points (usually in the form of observable behaviors or measurable skills) is interested in closings not in openings, in conclusions not in beginnings. Such a teacher is, more than likely, as distanced from the subject at hand as he or she is from the students in the class. Hamlet is used simply as an occasion for training people to do specified kinds of things; and once they show that they can do those things acceptably, the play is allowed to recede into the background, never to be heard from again. The attention has been focused on techniques, on knacks, and know-hows--not as foundations or beginnings, but as e ds. The teacher has avoided mc of the risks, as have the students, and one wonders what they have learned. I am suggesting that the kind of teacher who, in contrast, comes in with his or her own uncertainties and wonderments, with his or her own unanswered and perhaps unanswerable questions, is the one most likely to provoke students, on the ground of what they have learned about poetry and tragedy and the Renaissance and the Globe, to go in search.

"To become aware of the possibility of the search," says Walker Percy's (1979) narrator in The Moviegoer "... is to be on to something. Not to be on to something is to be in despair" (p. 13). By despair he means to be bored, passive, afflicted by the pointlessness of things. For me, despair forecloses

questions and the desire to make sense, to learn. (And even as I say all this, my own lifelong quest of Hamlet comes back to me and the words resonate somehow; the questions about the "uses of this world," about man "that quintessence of dust," and the questions aroused at least for me by Hamlet's charge to Horatio to absent himself from felicity a while "to tell my story." How will he tell it?, I keep asking myself; and what, finally, does it mean?)

In any case, the teacher who understands what Whitehead called "freedom in the presence of knowledge" is the one most likely to provoke others to gain the necessary mastery for the search they may find themselves needing to undertake. Whitehead (1949), you may remember, used to talk about a "rhythm of education." He wrote that "the dominant note of education at its beginning and at its end is freedom, but that there is an intermediate stage of discipline with freedom in subordination." He saw all mental development in terms of cycles--freedom, discipline, and freedom; he called the first period of freedom the "stage of Romance," the intermediate period of discipline the "stage of Precision," and the final period of freedom the "stage of Generalization" (pp. 27-40). My view is that a teacher has himself or herself to have internalized this rhythm, in some sense to live a life in accord with it in order to move the young to be interested enough to attend, to apprehend, and to reach beyond.

How do we educate teachers like this? As I see it, we need to suggest to our student teachers that professionals of the kind described generally conceive their teaching as their life project--that, in some significant way, they feel they are creating themselves daily be means of that project; it is, to a large extent, their way of being in the world. Now the idea of a project has much to do with futuring, with anticipated possibilities. Dewey (1957) used to speak of deliberation as "a dramatic rehearsal in imagination of var-

ious competing possible lines of action...." (p. 190). He described a kind of experiment in thought, in which different habits and impulses were selected and combined in various ways to see what kind of action would follow if one or another of those combinations were acted upon.

Projecting is a looking forward like that, an anticipation of future conduct through a kind of imaginative rehearsal like the one Dewey had in mind. The sources of it, clearly, are to be found in the individual's personal biography and previous experience. When I begin my teaching week, for example, or my teaching year, I am prone to imagine classroom situations where, let us say, I find myself able to think on my feet--making my thinking in some way visible to my students, disclosing the ways in which I make certain judgments, the reasons I find to support my conclusions, engaging them in a kind of open-ended process that involves them and me, referring to texts, articulating responses, carrying on dialogues. You could call this a fantasy of a future time, of what is not yet; but it is clearly affected by my acquaintance with acts previously performed that were in some way similar to what I now have in mind. In other words, because I teach graduate school, I somehow have to summon up other graduate school situations where this kind of thing happened. And, I suppose, I also have to pull out of my own biography images of such realized possibility, if only to understand why I believe it is possible, and why it seems so desirable, so right. Now my point is that I have to have that sort of desirable possibility in mind if I am going to plan intentionally the teaching acts by means of which I hope to bring about that state of affairs.

It is this plan of action that I call my project; and I want to stress the fact that I have chosen it and that I have to keep choosing among alternative courses of action if I am to come near realizing the possibility that

seems so desirable to me. Also, it involves me very personally. It touches on the very nature of who I am. Alfred Schutz (1967) describes what happens this way: he says that the mind, by its fantasying acts, creates various projects in inner time, "dropping one in favor of the other and returning to, or more precisely recreating the first. But by and in the transition from one to the succeeding states of consciousness, I have grown older, I have enlarged my experience. I am returning to the first, no longer the 'same' as I was when originally drafting it, and consequently, the project to which I return is no longer the same as that which I dropped or--more exactly--it is the same but modified" (p. 85). We can apply this to the ways we deal with principles, standards, biases, even with literature. Schutz knew, as we know, that there are certain actualities in outer time, that some of the options we define for ourselves must take into account the limits and determinants that exist. There is an institution; there are class hours, requirements, bells, interruptions to be coped with, as the teacher tries to bring into being what he or she has in mind. But (and I think this is of particular importance for the student teacher) there is also the stream, the ongoing river of inner time through which he or she is moving and changing and, as Schutz puts it, "growing older." It is, in a deep sense, in that domain that the self-creative takes place. It is in that domain that we exist, when we are lucky, in a "vivid present" to one another, that we sometimes live through that "vivid present" in common by sharing in one another's flux of experience. At one point, Schutz calls it a "mutual tuning in" that is like "making music together" in a quartet; but it is the kind of thing that can only happen if persons are enabled to come in touch with themselves, with their thinking and their futuring, and their being in the world.

What I believe we want to communicate to student teachers is the idea that it is by the work we do that we as living persons gear into the world, that we put ourselves in the position of modifying some aspect of that world, of making some difference as we live. It is in the context of our working acts that we define our projects, so long as those working acts are carried on with a sense of open anticipation, of imagined possibility. It has been said (and I think this ought to be communicated to student teachers as well) that it is what is called "the fundamental anxiety" (Schutz, 1967, p. 247) that moves persons to invent projects for themselves, to move deliberately towards what ought to be. The "fundamental anxiety" arises when we feel the need to make some mark, to leave some traces behind us as we move through the world. Who does not know the feeling that he or she might not be missed if he or she died or disappeared, that he or she is in some dreadful way expendable, that it may not matter in the long run if he or she were on the earth or not? It is what Thomas Mann called the "flatland" feeling in The Magic Mountain; it is what Albert Camus (1955) meant, in his novel, when he had his character, Tarrou, talk about the need to be vigilant against the plague. The plague--whether it be a form of indifference or abstractness or simply the feeling that nothing matters--has to be combatted deliberately; and one way of combatting it is to invent a project, to make a plan of action, with possibility in mind. In The Plague, some of you may remember, the project is (because it is "a matter of common decency") to fight the plague, to take the side of the victims, to form sanitary squads. None of this would have been possible if there had been no anticipation of a condition where unwanted separation would be no more and there would be less loss of love.

Now none of this is likely to happen--at moments of plague, in times of recession, in classrooms--if those affected and those concerned are not awake

to themselves and in touch with the world. There is a term "wide-awakeness" that Henry David Thoreau (1963) used first, I think, also in connection with possibility. You remember: "We must learn to reawaken and keep ourselves awake, not by mechanical aids but by an infinite expectation of the dawn, which does not forsake us, even in our soundest sleep." And then he goes on to talk about the encouraging fact that human beings have the "unquestionable ability" to elevate their lives "by a conscious endeavor" (p. 67). And Albert Camus used it, in one of his essays, when he wrote about one kind of a beginning: "It happens that the stage sets collapse. Rising, streetcar, four hours in the office or the factory, meal, streetcar, four hours of work, meal, sleep, and Monday Tuesday Wednesday Thursday Friday and Saturday according to the same rhythm--this path is easily followed most of the time. But one day the 'why' arises and everything begins in that weariness tinged with amazement." "Begins"--this is important. Weariness comes at the end of the acts of a mechanical life, but at the same time it inaugurates the impulse of consciousness. "It awakens and provokes what follows" (Camus, 1955, p. 12-13). And he said we have, ordinarily, two alternatives: to return into the chain, or the dread and mindless routine, or to awaken definitively, to commit suicide or to recover. I do not think this is too extreme to communicate to student teachers--threatened as they are, as they must be by routines and repetitions, tempted, as they will be over and over, to accede without thinking too much about it, to become clerks or functionaries. And then there is Schutz again, connecting the idea of wide-awakeness to the notion of project: "By the term 'wide-awakeness'," he wrote, "we want to denote a plane of consciousness of highest tension originating in an attitude of full attention to life and its requirements." Only the performing and especially the working self is fully interested in life and, hence, wide-awake. It lives within its

acts and its attention is exclusively directed to carying its project into effect, to executing its plan. This attention is an active, not a passive one. Passive attention is the opposite to full awakeness. In passive attention I experience "... the surf of indiscernible small perceptions which are actual experiences and not meaningful manifestations of spontaneity" (p. 213). By meaningful spontaneity he meant something that led to the "performance of working which gears into the outer world and modifies it." And I would add to that Jean-Paul Sartre's (1963) vision of a project that always involves surpassing, breaking through, going beyond.

Related to this as well and of equal importance for the classroom teacher is Hannah Arendt's (1958) notion of human work and action. Work (in contrast to labor), she said, bestows some measure of permanence and durability; it creates a world between human beings and nature; it makes possible some extension in time. She relates this notion of work to the arts--and, I think, to heritage as well, to the tradition; and one of the things I would like to communicate to student teachers is the relation between their projects, between the work they do, and the continuity of the created world. Arendt talks about young people as newcomers, who have to be initiated somehow into that world. Educators, she wrote, "must assume responsibility (for the world) although they did not make it, and even though they may secretly or openly, wish it were other than it is" (p. 189). Of course the world is constantly changing; but the teacher must know the world and be able to instruct others about it. Arendt said movingly that, with regard to the child, it must be as though the teacher were a representative of all adult inhabitants, pointing out the details and saying to the child: "This is our world." They have to be given the idea that it is up to them to renew it in time. "Education," she concluded, "is the point at which we decide whether we love the world enough

to assume responsibility for it and by the same token save it from that ruin which, except for renewal, except for the coming of the young, would be inevitable. And education, too, is where we decide whether we love our children enough not to expel them from our world and leave them to their own devices, not to strike from their hands their chance of undertaking something new, something unforseen by us, but to prepare them in advance for the task of renewing the common world." (p. 196).

As I see it, this refers to the intellectual and artistic heritage as much as it does to the actualities of the lived situations the students and the teacher have in common. I happen to believe very strongly in the importance of a liberal education for every teacher--preferably before he or she reaches the student teaching or internship stage. I believe that what might be called the education of the person (in contrast to the education of the specialist, let us say, or the pure practitioner) ought to involve encounters, multiple encounters, with the disciplines--or what my colleague, Philip Phenix (1964), calls the "realms of meaning." I associate the disciplines, in fact, with what William James (1950) called "subuniverses of meaning" (pp. 287-304); and, following Schutz as well as James, I see each one as providing possible perspectives on people's lives, and on their common-sense worlds. If the would-be teacher already has a sense of what she or he wants to bring into being, already hopes to play a part in releasing students to learn how to learn, he or she is likely to discover considerable relevance in acquaintance with the diverse ways there are of structuring experience--each one distinguished by its own cognitive style, each one requiring a distinctive way of turning attention to the world. Dewey and Schutz and many others have made the point that what is real must be understood to be <u>interpreted</u> experience; and there is a sense in which what we most want our student teachers to

learn how to do is to empower young people to interpret, to make sense, more and more variously, more and more rigorously, of their experiences, of their lived worlds. To do so is to become increasingly familiar with the schemata, the patterns made available by those Schutz called our "predecessors and contemporaries." That means the modes of explanation developed by historians as they made their efforts to order events in space and time; by anthropologists as they struggled--from their own standpoints--to articulate the structures of cultures, of myths, of languages; by biologists; by physicists, as they worked to understand events and phenomena in the physical universe; by mathematicians as they invented their diverse symbolisms, made their abstract designs, opened new possibilities for thought.

What I am suggesting, of course, is that student teachers ought--if they are to enable others to make sense--to be profoundly familiar with the ways there are of ordering, conceptualizing, codifying. Dewey (1934) wrote of the mind as a verb--a way of addressing what was around with care, he said, with solicitude (p. 263); and Jerome Bruner (1966) often made the point that the culture provides a variety of means for empowering mind He had models in mind, the theories human beings create to render the varieties of experience into some manageable form (pp. 15-30). It seems to me to be of the first importance for student teachers not only to have the experience of opening their own perspective, of making connections, of ordering the multifariousness of things, but to reflect upon what happens when they do this--when they name and conceptualize and find themselves using clusters of meaning to make more and more sense. To organize experience this way, to do so reflectively, is to have more power over it, to see more, to be more fully in touch. Also it is to be in a position of always going beyond; and, because it is, it has much to do with the student teacher's consciousness of possibility, with the project

he or she creates as he or she lives.

I am sure we can all remember how this realization developed in our own biographies. When I was young, like most children, I became in some way acquainted with certain pictures, musical pieces, poems. Each one was a particular; in some way, they did not connect with one another or lead into one another and lead, especially, beyond themselves. I think it took a while before I learned the concept 'art' and was enabled to perceive Hemingway and Mozart and Edna St. Vincent Millay and Shakespeare as inhabiting a universe that was somehow different from Euclid's universe or Columbus's or Franz Boas's or Edward Biggon's. And I began asking myself then, I am sure, how the concept 'art' should be used, what it referred to in the past, and the present, what people meant when they pointed to an abstraction, say, or a Dali work and exclaimed "Do they call that art?" or, in contrast, what they meant when they went to the museum or the opera and told the world (after standing before a Rembrandt or listening to Verdi), "That really is art!" Now I know that without a concept like that, uncertain though we often are when we use it, we would have to talk about children's drawings and Monet's painting and abstract works and the statues in the museum and the Statue of Liberty and Emily Dickinson's poetry and Ralph Ellison's fiction and the film, Ordinary People as isolated particulars, in some comparative sense barren of meaning. We would have no category to put them in, no rubric to put them under; and if a new poem suddenly appeared on our desks, or a new painting suddenly materialized, we would have no universe to put them in. We would not be able to talk about art. The same is true about such concepts as "climate," "cause" and "effect," "experiment," "inflation," "economy," "nutrition," "agriculture," "ecology." If we want our student teachers to think conceptually, to move others to look through wider and more diverse perspectives, we need to

nurture the process in the course of teacher education. We need to enable our students to perceive it as fundamental to their quest.

Where encounters with the arts are concerned, persons discover quite early that the more they know, the more they will see and hear; and this is one of the many reasons I believe that student teachers, whether or not they plan to teach the arts, ought to be enabled to attain some informed awareness of paintings, let us say, dramatic performances, musical works, novels, poems, more than they are ordinarily provided--especially where the emphasis is exclusively on competencies. In any effort to educate aesthetically--to educate for aesthetic literacy, if you like--the point must be made (and can be made) that there is no way to realize a work of art, to make it live in one's experience, if one is not actively involved with what one sees and hears, present to it, letting one's energy go out to it. Every encounter with a work of art clearly represents a new beginning, even if the work is moderately familiar and has not been encountered before. One reason for saying that is that every time we become present, say, to a Cezanne painting or an Emily Dickinson poem, we are always about to experience something new--and, in some manner, to know that--if the work is worth encountering more than once. We are at another point in our life history, for one thing; we are different from what we have been, even a day before. It may be that we have learned more about what it signifies to look at a painting, to attend to the forms, to see the contours emerging, to engage with the thrust of color, the illusions of space. Having thought about it, having questioned it, we will be able to see differently, to see more. And, strangely, we may discover--if we allow ourselves to do so--that, every time we come to the Cezanne painting, there is always more to be seen, again, if we are willing to think about it, and to think about our own

thinking with respect to it. There is no way of packaging works of arts, you see. There is always, always more.

Now I am talking about this, not simply because I believe that the arts and the cultivation of informed awareness should play a more central role in classroom life than they do (and that student teachers should be empowered to make this to some degree possible). I do happen to believe it passionately, knowing as I do that aesthetic experiences are not only affective or intuitive, knowing that they involve human beings perceptually and cognitively as much as they do emotionally, or that they should involve people in this way, and that they provoke all kinds of people to wide-awakeness, to posing questions and thinking about their worlds. I mention it also because it seems to me to be a kind of paradigm, to suggest many things about how all teaching ought to proceed and all learning, especially if we want teachers and learners to be present, personally present to what is happening. It suggests, also, the relation between knowing and seeing, between the sense of open possibility and the desire to reach out, to think prospectively and as a participant, as someone who is imaginitive and careful, someone who is awake to his or her lived world. I cannot but believe that, with such experiences, student teachers will be more likely to know what it is to be on to something and to move, along with their students, in search.

I have been stressing beginnings and processes throughout; I have been talking of moving beyond and of perceptions of possibility. It seems to me that, whatever their background, student teachers must have as many experiences as possible that transcend fixities and what is sometimes called "inertness" (Whitehead, 1949, pp. 41-44). By that I mean (as Whitehead did) information that is solidified, packaged, in some way dead; pieces of what is incorrectly called knowledge that students are expected to insert into their

minds. Such an approach to teaching can only discourage thinking, of course; since, after all, the value of what any of us comes to know is subordinate, as Dewey said, to its use in thinking; and, far too frequently, inert knowledge stops thinking, even on the part of those who teach. (That is much of what I had in mind when I talked about the teaching of Hamlet early on and the importance of presenting Hamlet as open possibility, something that can never be packaged, reduced, turned into a competency.) Whether it is the theory of gravity or the history of the Globe Theatre, the voyage of Columbia, or Cezanne's effort to restore structure to the world, the point is to feed into and nurture the thinking process, the sense-making process, not to move people to say, "I know, I know" and to stop there. Student teachers need to regain the consciousness of this, if they have lost it. Again, I think of experiences with the arts, where there is so often an awareness of connections being made and new patterns opening up. I recall Virginia Woolf (1976) writing about how much of her childhood contained what she called a large proportion of "cotton wool," meaning that much of it was not lived consciously. She speaks of certain exceptional moments and the difference between incidents she could not explain -- the one in which her brother struck her, the one in which she heard that a family friend had killed himself, -- and those (like the sight of a flower) she could explain. The ones she could not explain made her feel passive, powerless. The ones she could somehow account for gave her a feeling of power; a power through reason to provide an explanation, she said. And then she suggests that explanation often "blunts the sledgehammer force of a blow . . ."

> I think this is true, because though I still have the peculiarity that I receive these sudden shocks, they are now always welcome. After the first surprise, I always feel instantly that they are particularly valuable. And so I go on to suppose that the shock-

> receiving capacity is what makes me a writer. I hazard the explanation that a shock is at once in my case followed by the desire to explain it. I feel that I have had a blow; but it is not, as I thought as a child, simply a blow from an enemy hidden behind the cotton wool of daily life, it is or will become...a token of some real thing behind appearances; and made real by putting it into words. It is only by putting it into words that I make it whole; this wholeness means that it has lost its power to hurt me; it gives me, perhaps because by doing so I take away the pain, a great delight to put the severed parts together (p. 72).

She talks about her pleasure at discovering what belongs to what in her writing, making a scene right, making a character come together; a teacher--a student teacher--might talk about the pleasure to be gained in making connections in experience, discovering the relation between what is perceived or understood and what follows from it, what its consequences are, how it works to illuminate further experience. Woolf, without necessarily meaning to, was talking about something of great importance when it comes to learning; the feeling of incompleteness, linked to the sense of possibility. And, if our students are lucky, as Virginia Woolf was lucky, that feeling may impel them towards seeking new knowledge, may move them to think about things, to think about their own thinking. There are flowers and suicides and their equivalents in the sensed and perceived world inhabited by young student teachers. There are flowers and faces and city streets and burnt-out storefronts and closed day-care centers and courthouses and power stations, phenomena to be attended to as Woolf attended to what was happening in her world. There are lived, sensed, perceived actualities that raise questions not presently answerable, things to be put away in the mind, to be returned to, to be turned over, to be explored--and later on explained.

Especially where student teachers are concerned, I would emphasize the concern for consciousness and the linking of consciousness to thinking and

explaining. To feel passive, to feel powerless is indeed to be open to the despair all young people know too well; and I believe that one of the important contributions to be made to an initiation into cognitive action, into thinking, is the overcoming of the sense of powerlessness. Virginia Woolf's way of doing it was by putting her experiences into words; and I believe one does not have to be a writer to do just this. It is important to do all we can to enable our students to articulate what they see, what perplexes them, what dulls and deadens them--either by talking about these things aloud, by writing logs, by keeping journals, by inventing fictions, even by editing newsletters. To speak, to come together in speech and action, is not only a way of overcoming passivity; it is a way of being free along with others, of developing the power Woolf talked about, the power against non-being, or the "nondescript cotton wool" that characterizes so much of life. It seems to be so important for student teachers to learn how to show themselves as persons working at overcoming powerlessness and silence, the speechlessness that makes it increasingly hard for people to talk with each other, the wordlessness that shows itself in the constrained talk of some of the young, the technical talk of so many people in education, the kind of public talk we hear from Washington; all of which stands in the way of thought.

As I suggested before, it is so important for student teachers to learn how to disclose themselves, to present themselves as wondering, thinking, learning beings--thinking critically, giving good reasons for the claims they make and even the demands they make, displaying foresight and integrity, involving those in their classrooms in an inquiry, an enterprise of discovery that is always open, that allows for possibility. Student teachers have to be enabled to spend time thinking through what a rational explanation actually means, even as they have to understand what conceptualizing means and critical

dialogue. I know what a burden we are placing on them, what a responsibility; but I believe, against all odds, that student teachers can be empowered to live the modes of being we hope young persons will some day make their own. This may be what David Hawkins had in mind when he said, one time, that a good teacher lends his or her students part of his or her life, and when the students begin teaching themselves, the loan has been repaid. He also had in mind what Dewey described as doing what situations call for self-educatively, moving students to do what situations call for, trying to create the kinds of situations that stimulate them to do just that and, in doing it, to discover and use certain of the concepts that enable people to impose order and meaning on the world.

Now I know what some of you are thinking and I know the likely responses to some of what I have said. You are recalling schools where the emphasis is firmly on basic skills, on test results; you are thinking about the administrators who only care about the numbers, when the chips are down, the review tests, the test scores, the competencies. And some of you are picturing abstracted youthful faces, the faces of those for whom school (no matter how provocative) is far less important than television or rock music or rhythm and blues or life on the streets. And it is certainly true that for children who look at television for six hours or more a day, school is not really interesting or relevant and, in any case, it is a drag because it makes demands TV does not make, and it can make people feel inferior as TV never does, and it does not have to do with the real things (as TV seems to), with things that are close to life.

I am sure there are those of you who believe that student teachers have above all to be trained for accomodation and for proficiency, for survival (some say) within the system, that we cannot expect too much, that all we can

ask is that teachers do their jobs as efficiently as possible and define themselves somewhere else. I would respond, in the first place, by saying that, whatever the distortions and elaborations, the school's primary function is still to teach people to think, to choose, to find themselves, and that, in fact, no other institution or agency in society has that particular responsibility. If we do not succeed in accomplishing that mission, we will leave thousands upon thousands of young people passive, stunned, and literally thoughtless in front of TV or next to record players. And they will become increasingly fearful--and increasing confused--and (I am sure) increasingly violent. Horror, despair, passivity, and nondescript cotton wool. We have only to offer the power that comes with the capacity to explain, to locate, to conceptualize, to go beyond.

As significantly, it seems to me that only those teachers who are in process, who are in search of meanings for themselves, who want to do things well can move others to reach out for themselves, to learn. If we treat student teachers as technicians--if we avoid personal engagements--the schools will be training centers mainly, and the imaginative ones, the hopeful ones will stay away.

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Issues in Student Teaching: People, Interactions, Contexts

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The papers which have preceded this one were all prepared for the conference. This one, however, emerged out of the conference. On four separate occasions, conference participants met in small groups to discuss the ideas and proposals advanced by the invited speakers. In addition to the group discussions, participants formulated individual recommendations about studying the student teaching experience which they shared with our staff. The substance of these small group discussions and individual recommendations is presented here.

First, it is important to acknowledge the insightful, sensitive, and generous participation by the twenty-nine persons who attended the meeting. Interactions, formal and informal, were characterized by an enthusiastic response to RITE's request for advice and counsel as we move forward with our research agenda. We were helped to realize once again that a sense of collegiality and a continuing resolution to work with others toward improved teacher education are characteristic of our co-workers in all roles. Our meeting drew together teacher educators, school system officers, teachers, educational researchers, and student teachers. The discussions were lively, the debate sometimes passionate, and the level of concerned enthusiasm consistently high.

This paper is a synthesis of the discussions and recommendations which were elicited during our two days together. It is not possible to include all of the concerns expressed by conference participants, nor realistic to expect that all of the concerns expressed can be considered to be the consensus of the group. What appears here, then, is one person's

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interpretation of the issues which were raised. Naturally, I assume responsibility for any biases which appear in this synthesis as well as for any issues which have not been included or which receive diminished emphasis.

After listening to audiotapes of the group discussions, summarizing the principal points made during discussion, and analyzing the individual recommendations, I identified four major categories of issues which appeared to dominate the attention of conference participants: (1) the participants in the practice of student teaching, (2) the interactions of those participants, (3) the contexts within which student teaching takes place, and (4) anticipated or desired outcomes of the student teaching experience. These categories will serve as organizers for presenting the issues which arose during the conference.

Participants in the Student Teaching Experience

It was apparent that most of the persons whose views are presented here believed that the three most critical participants in student teaching are the student teacher, the cooperating teacher, and the university supervisor. Although it was acknowledged that students, parents, school system officials, and teacher educators were implicitly or explicitly influential upon or influenced by student teaching, discussion was centered principally around the more typically-understood participants. For each member of the student teaching triad, issues regarding personal and professional characteristics were identified.

The Cooperating Teacher. It was generally agreed that the cooperating teacher is believed by most observers of student teaching to be the most important influence upon the student teacher's entry into schools and classrooms. Attention to the attendant roles of gatekeeper, guide, and tutor

raises important issues about the cooperating teacher's personal and professional characteristics, values, skills, and knowledge.

A well-conceptualized and carefully-rationalized system for identifying, monitoring, and assessing cooperating teachers needs to be formulated, tested, and disseminated.

A recurrent theme throughout the discussions was the need to focus on the construct of "excellence" in identifying, selecting, and guiding cooperating teachers. Although there were different interpretations of what an outstanding cooperating teacher might be, there was general agreement that the cooperating teacher should be a responsive and responsible adult, mature, confident when appropriate and questioning when necessary, reflective, in command of subject matter and pedagogy, and able to work effectively with other adults as well as with children. Although it was acknowledged that such cooperating teachers can be found, it was also admitted that careful attention to such criteria in selecting persons for this important teacher education role was not always characteristic of practice. The use of the "old school tie" network, the practice of placing student teachers with teachers who appear to need an extra set of hands in the classroom, the random (or, perhaps worse, automatic rotation) system of assigning student teachers, and other equally undesirable practices were cited.

The core of this problem of selection of cooperating teachers, of course, is the lack of a clear explication of what is necessary and desirable as the best guide to the practice of teaching. Although the characteristics listed above received the expected hearty positive response, there was some confusion when it came to operationalizing (for selection purposes) the personal and professional attributes. Does one assume that a teacher whose classes consistently score well on conventional measures of achievement will

be a good cooperating teacher? Is there some relation between a teacher's school-based reputation for excellence and potential as a cooperating teacher? Are school principals' recommendations valid and reliable? Are there indices of quality which can be applied over time to insure that the best cooperating teachers remain in the role and the least able do not? Is either the student teacher's or university supervisor's assessment of a cooperating teacher a useful criterion to measure success? These are some of the questions which arose and which were addressed. As one would expect, there were few instances where group members were solidly certain about answers to them.

> The cooperating teacher's status in the student teaching experience needs to be strengthened with particular attention given to deficits in authority, rewards, and collegial interaction.

Directly related to the first issue is the concern for how the cooperating teacher relates, substantively and procedurally, to others in the student teaching experience. There is some evidence that, in the final analysis, the cooperating teacher is often not considered an "influential" in the process by anyone except the student teacher who may learn, in time, that the university supervisor holds the real power. There was considerable interest expressed by conference participants in the actual and assumed status of the cooperating teacher as partner in the student teaching enterprise.

The issue of status, naturally, involves such phenomena as authority, power, influence, rewards, sanctions, and perceived importance. Many of our colleagues believe that the cooperating teacher has implicit status, but that that status is easily subject to erosion. This erosion can occur when a

college or university person overturns or otherwise subverts the intentional practices of the cooperating teacher, when a grade for a student teacher is changed somewhere in the higher education institution, when the content of a student teacher's concurrent courses and seminars are in conflict with the activities planned by the cooperating teacher, and when the cooperating teacher is not consistently part of the student teaching governance structure.

The conference participants were particularly concerned about the rewards for cooperating teachers. Although the expressions of concerns could be characterized as various, it was acknowledged that there were few tangible rewards and that these were usually secondary to the less tangible ones. It is not uncommon, for instance, for cooperating teachers to receive no financial payment for their work with student teachers. When they are paid, moreover, the stipend is often less than $100 per semester. Participants noted that this is in direct contradiction to the prevailing ethic as espoused by teacher organizations and other occupational groups. Given this contradiction, how is the cooperating teacher to place value upon his/her work? There are, it was emphasized, numbers of cooperating teachers who look upon their roles as natural and expected contributions to the growth of the profession and derive their rewards from this belief and from their satisfaction in working with neophyte teachers, in feeling a sense of responsibility for students' future success, and in knowing that they have made a positive impact upon a prospective teacher.

One's status is also influenced by the importance one's peers place upon one's work. As has been noted in the literature regarding school organization, teachers tend to work in isolation from one another. This condition, more often than not, also prevails with cooperating teachers.

There are some instances where cooperating teachers meet together, for purposes of communication or professional development or both, but these instances are more the exception than the rule. Where, then, is the source of peer acknowledgement of contribution? Where is the desirable and, some would say, necessary reinforcement for intellectual and physical energy expenditures and influences? Under conditions of isolation, how are ideas and practices tested more widely than in one setting and how are flaws and misdirected practices corrected? There is a need for teachers who serve as guides to student teachers to interact with one another for the purposes of intellectual, practical, and human growth.

> Attention must be given to clarifying the expectations for cooperating teachers' behavior, whether the behaviors are technical, analytical, imitative, reflective, or a combination thereof.

Insufficient attention has been given to what is expected of the cooperating teacher in terms of performance. The characteristics the person brings to the experience and the status he or she holds will, it is believed, affect the student teaching experience but a vital question remains: what are the most desired behaviors for the cooperating teacher to exhibit?

Given the historical use of the apprenticeship method of preparation of teachers, it is surprising to find so little consensus regarding what the leader of that apprenticeship should do to make it worthwhile to and for the neophyte. The participants in our meeting, not surprisingly, reflected this lack of agreement. There was some attention given to the cooperating teacher as a technician who can demonstrate, explain, and evaluate pedagogical activities. The cooperating teacher as role model (in terms of practice) was advocated. The cooperating teacher as a sort of "mirror" in which a student

could reflect his or her practices and beliefs to determine degree of success was suggested. There was a discussion of the cooperating teacher as a mediator who contributes to the synthesis of theory and practice. And, as a response to Maxine Greene's paper, significant attention was given to the cooperating teacher as one who provides opportunities for student teachers to begin the complicated journey of reflection and "making one's mark."

Participants were in relative agreement that the vision of the student teaching experience expressed by Greene is highly desirable. They were also in agreement that such cooperating teachers as this necessitates are rare. This, however, did not deter discussants from expressing considerable enthusiasm for identifying these teachers and securing their participation in the student teaching experience.

> There should be systematic attention given to the preparation and training of cooperating teachers for their roles toward the ends of efficiency, effectiveness, and meaningful adaptation of the student teaching experience.

The conference members raised a number of questions about how cooperating teachers were prepared for their roles. The prevailing descriptions of practice did not include many instances of systematic attempts by school systems or colleges or universities to engage current or prospective cooperating teachers in opportunities to either learn about or learn how in regard to student teaching. There were, of course, descriptions of what might be called orientation sessions which, in reality, most often turned out to be directed toward an understanding of procedures, deadlines, forms, and the like.

Given the complexity of the student teaching experience, the vague goals which guide it, the uncertainty regarding what should be expected as its

outcomes, and the concern for the practices which it contains, it seems almost futile to consider providing guidance to cooperating teachers prior to or concurrent with their participation in it. These difficulties did not, however, deter conference participants from advancing recommendations that such development activities be formulated. The rationale which supported the recommendation might be stated as follows: although there is less than desirable clarity about the student teaching experience, each institution does have expectations for the experience and the more familiar cooperating teachers are with those expectations, the more likely they will be met and/or adapted to better accomodate the contexts and individuals involved. There was a genuine concern for the cooperating teacher as "pawn," one who is shifted without apparent reason or rhyme from one position on the student teaching playing board to another. This concern has already surfaced in the issue regarding status -- it appeared again in relation to training the cooperating teacher. What appeared as an assumption in much of the discussion reported here was that the more the cooperating teachers were exposed to the expectations of the college or university, the more possible and likely it would be that the student teaching experience would (and could) be influenced by them.

The Student Teacher. As might be expected, there was considerable concern expressed about the student teacher in terms of selection, preparation for student teaching, expectations for their performance, recommendations for certification or licensure, and subsequent teaching performance.

There is a need to identify realistic means to attract prospective teachers who are intellectually able, socially responsible

and sensitive to the complex requirements of teaching and learning.

As thoughtful members of the larger society and as practicing educators, the conference members could not ignore the recent reports that less-able students have been entering teacher education programs. Likewise, the participants were sharply aware of the disillusionment being expressed with public education in general and public school teachers in particular. More than an occasional reference was made to the diminished status of the teaching role in local communities and in popular magazine articles outlining the so-called erosion of public confidence in elementary and secondary schools, and to the data which indicate declining SAT scores. Concern was expressed regarding the consequences such phenomena appear to have upon young people as they consider entering teacher education programs.

It was acknowledged by public school representatives, teachers and school officials, as well as by teacher educators that there does appear to be a real decline in the skills, abilities, and expectations of the current group of prospective teachers. There is evidence in some areas of the country that there are simply too few perceived rewards to convince more able college-age students to opt into teaching so that the convention "anyone can become a teacher" is perhaps more true today than in recent decades.

The availability of options for women in the work world is also perceived as being influential upon the apparent decline in the number of high quality teacher education candidates. That is, unlike times past, there currently are more opportunities for women to engage in the more prestigious professions (e.g., law and medicine) and in better paying positions. Therefore, the old adage of "teaching as last resort" for the woman who sees

a role for herself outside of the home is no longer influential upon self-selection into teaching.

Conference participants, while acknowledging these social conditions and others, emphasized the need to attract and retain as teachers persons with well-developed intellectual knowledge bases and skills, willingness to participate actively in the development of the teaching profession, and clear conceptions of the importance of schooling in the United States society.

Student teachers are less than well-prepared in essential and central knowledge and skill areas necessary to succeeding as a teacher.

Typically, a discussion of student teaching reveals the opinion of school people that the student teachers who come from colleges of education do not possess adequate craft knowledge or up-to-date research knowledge regarding teaching. The conference members reiterated this view. Interestingly, the teacher educators were in agreement with the school people on this issue and were equally concerned about how to remedy the situation.

Attention was given to the domains of knowledge and skill that student teachers should bring to their initial classroom interactions. There was strong agreement on the importance of classroom management techniques, subject matter knowledge, use of instructional materials, understanding of the characteristics of learners, and both general and subject-specific pedagogy. A somewhat unique point of view was expressed by this group in acknowledging that the student teacher should have a well-developed set of conceptions of the school as a workplace. Analysis of group discussions revealed that many participants believed that knowledge of the school in terms of its organizational properties (e.g., decision making, communication

concern for knowledge, skill, sensitivity, and other personal and professional attributes. The means by which these desirable characteristics could be developed in prospective teachers was also given attention.

Conference participants generally agreed to what might be termed "gradual entry" into the elementary or secondary schools. This means that a sequence of opportunities for understanding the nature of teaching and schooling could be provided prior to student teaching. A typically expressed sequence would be opportunities to observe teachers and students in a focused manner, experience in analyzing these observations from a variety of perspectives (e.g., developmental psychology, organizational, pedagogical, interactive, etc.), planning for and reflecting upon experiences with tutoring individuals and small groups, and having supervised interactions with class-size groups in relatively simple ways (stories, games, playground activities, etc.) It was believed by many conference members that this sequence or one similar to it would not only lead the prospective teachers through a learning sequence but would also help them in answering the crucial question, "Do I really want to become a teacher?" before a negative decision would mean a lengthy period of academic reorientation.

Student teachers, like teachers in service, have few, if any peer group systems to provide personal and professional collegial support.

Concern was expressed that student teachers, like practicing teachers, tend to work in isolation from one another. This isolation is seen as contributing to the so-called "loneliness" of the profession and is believed to be undesirable as a socialization process. Some conference members suggested that student teachers be encouraged to form peer groups as personal and professional support systems as part of their preparation programs. It

systems, authority structure, etc.) would be a great asset to the student teacher as s/he moves into an elementary or secondary school culture.

Student teachers are typically unaware of the workings of a school beyond minimal acquaintance with one or two classrooms.

Closely related to the issue of student teacher preparation is the concern that student teachers are not served well if a college-based preparation program is not aligned with the "institutional regularities" of ongoing elementary and secondry school programs. This belief that college programs of study are often distanced, ideologically and practically, from what goes on in schools on a daily basis permeated much of the discussion at the conference. Although the participants did not resort to the "ivory tower versus reality" cliche, the lack of negotiated agreement between college and public school persons as to what teaching is all about was the focus of much of the conversation.

The debate about what student teachers should bring to the school setting, in terms of knowledge about the school as a social institution, was lively if not conclusive. It was acknowledged that persons who study schools (as opposed to those who work in them) are often in some disagreement about the nature of the institution. Nevertheless, it was commonly agreed that student teachers and the conventions of student teaching as professional preparation would be well served by a better understanding of the school, its norms, organizational properties, and its operational characteristics.

There needs to be developed a sequence of field-based learning opportunities whereby student teachers are more adequately prepared for their entry into the student teaching setting.

The importance of antecedent experiences which would enrich the student teachers' experiences in schools was acknowledged. As noted above, there was

diminishing, it seems more than reasonable that truly cooperative relationships be instituted (or reinstituted) between higher education and elementary and secondary school institutions. One means to achieve this goal is to use the historically valid teacher apprenticeship program as the vehicle.

Student teacher placement is often not a product of careful deliberation among students, college of education faculty, and school system officials and cooperating teachers.

As has been implied elsewhere in this document, there is a need to provide student teachers with opportunities to learn the craft of teaching in the most receptive and powerful environments. It is unlikely that these "best bet" schools and classrooms are ones where the student teacher is uncomfortable, the cooperating teacher unwilling, or the university supervisor disapproving. Yet, conference participants cited many instances where one or more of these negative conditions existed to the detriment of the student teaching experience.

The term "negotiation" was used to describe the opportunities which could accrue to the student teaching experience if certain assignment practices were developed and implemented. First, it is believed important that the student be included in the assignment process. This involvement is less a matter of accepting all of the student's preferences (e.g., location, nature of student population, travel time, etc.) than it is one of meeting the student's expectations for the experience. Second, there is little to gain by placing student teachers in classrooms where the cooperating teacher is reluctant to share authority or even space with another adult. The expectations of the cooperating teacher also need to be considered. Third, the experiences of the university supervisors with classrooms and school

was expressed that this practice would serve the student teacher during his/her apprentice period and might persist as a norm during subsequent teaching years. Although it was acknowledged that the social context of schools would probably initially militate against the power of this practice to take root, it was hoped that as more cohort groups moved into the schools there would be a normative change in terms of teacher collegiality.

Student teachers could be the substantive and procedural link between the college/university and the school systems if their status were higher and more clearly defined.

Although a certain amount of lip service is given to the possibility that student teachers bring new knowledge and skill to their school system placements, there appear to be few instances of systematic occasions where this possibility is acted out. Certainly, cooperating teachers often acknowledge that the student teachers in their classrooms provide new and different ways of working with students. The argument here is that such practices are not capitalized upon by college/university or by cooperating school systems. Most often, the infusion into school systems of new ideas and approaches is a consequence of individuals' initiative.

It appears reasonable to expect that the student teaching experience could be an effective means by which there is mutual informative exchange between the institution of higher education and the school system. Conference participants noted that there is currently a decline in enthusiasm of school system officials and teachers for providing student teaching opportunities. It was speculated that this state of affairs is the result of the too-long history of schools being "used" by colleges and universities for clinical teacher education opportunities with little or no return benefit. In a time when fiscal and human resources to support public education are

systems are important factors in assignments. The supervisors are probably the most comprehensively knowledgeable about both the student teachers and the student teaching settings and that knowledge should be one of the bases for student placements.

The negotiated agreements suggested above could also serve to reinforce the "student teacher as link between university/college and school system" idea noted earlier in this paper.

The University Supervisor. When clinical preservice teacher education is discussed, the primary focus is usually the student teacher. Considerations regarding the student teacher often cannot be separated from ones which concentrate upon the cooperating teacher. It is a rarity when the university supervisor becomes central to the discussion. Yet, in many ill-defined and often misunderstood ways, the university supervisor is critical to the enactment of student teaching.

The conference participants, unlike many other groups concerned with professional education, gave considerable attention to the university supervisor's role.

The university supervisor's role is the least well-understood one in the student teaching experience.

Although there have been many relatively small-scale, in terms of sample size and/or number of variables considered, studies of student teaching, it is difficult to find ones which concentrate their attention upon the university supervisor. What attention is given is usually peripheral or a small part of one of the other participant's perceptions of the supervisor's role in such typical events as assignment, evaluation, or reporting processes.

Participants in the conference were almost uniformly in favor of a more clearly delineated role for university supervisors. It was agreed that the clarification of the supervisor's role would mitigate some of the persistent problems associated with the student teaching experience. These problems were noted as being "snoopervision," conflicts of values and desirable practices, overriding of cooperating teachers' evaluations by university persons, and inadequate or infrequent classroom visitations.

It was the belief of some conference members that the university supervisor could be the most important role in the triad. Examples of how this importance would be expressed included linker between school and college/university, clinical professor of teacher education, and "gatekeeper." The linkage idea is rooted in the assumption that both the school and higher education institution can learn from one another and that such learning requires systematic attention by someone who has status in both organizations. The clinical professor suggestion has a long history in higher education but conference participants noted that typical colleges and universities have given little more than lip service to its implementation. Because of the problems of standards for entry into teaching settings (licensure, certification, appointment), the possibility that the university supervisor could be someone charged with monitoring and maintaining standards of excellence for teacher candidates was an appealing proposal. There was little agreement, however, as to how this concept of role could be institutionalized and whether it would, indeed, promote either better clinical experiences or contribute to the expertise of prospective teachers.

Of concern to the participants was the issue of <u>who</u> the university supervisor should be in terms of institutional status and allegiance. It was acknowledged that many, if not most, university supervisors are persons who

have limited status in higher education institutions and that, often, they are graduate students with little or no preparation for their roles beyond that of once having been classroom teachers. Further, there was the question of allegiance. Should the supervisor be a member of the training setting (e.g. public school system), a member of the institution of higher education, or both? Certain programs of teacher preparation appoint university supervisors from the public school setting but expect them to have allegiance to both institutions involved in the process. This allegiance is often believed to be guaranteed if the supervisor receives reimbursement from both organizations. Although no concensus was achieved, it was generally agreed that the issue of allegiance needed careful attention in order to strengthen the supervisor's role.

The selection, appointment, and evaluation of university supervisors is, in many instances, neither systematic nor well-defined in terms of criteria.

As noted above, conference members acknowledged the disorder and confusion which appears to enmesh the role of the university supervisor of student teaching. Closely aligned with this concern was the apparent haphazard manner in which such persons are selected, appointed, and evaluated. Although exemplary practices can be cited, it was agreed that both experience and observation supported the conclusion that university supervisors, functioning in a somewhat opaque role, are seldom persons who have been carefully identified and even more carefully evaluated in terms of their impact upon the student teaching experience.

Discussion related to the selection of university supervisors of student teaching revealed wide variations in perceived practice. In some instances it was noted that supervisors were selected from a willing (or not so

willing) pool of graduate students with, it was generally believed, some experience in teaching at elementary and/or secondary levels if not in higher education institutions. In some colleges of education university supervisors are selected from that pool of professors who, for whatever reasons, did not have adequate enrollment in their "usual" courses and were required to alter their student contact hours to include supervision of student teachers. It was mentioned that in still other higher education settings supervisors were integral members of faculty groups who performed student teacher supervision consistently from year to year. (This practice was perceived by conference members as being extremely rare.) In some instances, university supervisors were persons selected from the receiving school systems who were called upon to have joint allegiance to the higher education institution and the local education agency.

While conference members did not call for uniformity of practice in their deliberations, they did express great concern over the apparent lack of criteria for selection and appointment of university supervisors.

The evaluation of the supervisor's work with student teachers was also raised as an issue. There was little agreement as to the practices of evaluation. In fact, it was an often expressed belief that the supervisor (that person charged with evaluating the performances of student teachers and, in some instances, cooperating teachers) was very rarely, if ever, evaluated. The substantive and procedural "slippage" which can occur in such practice was believed to be a principal cause of many of the personal, professional, and institutional problems often associated with the clinical component of preservice teacher education.

The status of the university supervisor in both higher education

and public school settings is, at best, questionable and, at worst insignificant.

Conference members expressed beliefs that many of the difficulties of the student teaching experience can be traced to the apparent lack of resolution of the university supervisor's status in either the college of education or the public school setting. It often appears that the university supervisor is in the unenviable position of trying to serve the purposes of markedly different contexts and, within these contexts, to serve persons with dramatically different orientations to student teaching.

Consider the multiple realities of the university supervisor. S/he is typically expected to be a teacher of adults, a transmitter of skill and knowledge about teaching, a mediator between student teachers and cooperating teachers, an evaluator of performance, a guide to improved practices, a translator of organizational policies, and a role model to many of the participants in student teaching. When any or all of these functions erode for some reason, the person's status in the organizations and with the participants also suffers a decline. Further, it is believed by many teacher educators that this status was never very strong.

As noted above, the university supervisor is often drawn from a group of persons who may or may not be either expert or willing. When this is perceived by others in either the college or the public school it is not surprising that the person in the role (and the role itself) does not have high organizational status. Added to the apparent less-than-systematic appointment procedures, the lack of evaluation criteria or procedures, and the myriad of functions is the issue of institutional allegiance. To whom is the university supervisor expected to display this allegiance? To the college or university and its policies, goals, and practices? To the

receiving school setting? To the people in the process? To all of the above? The question of allegiance is not one that has received widespread attention. Conference members believed that it should.

As is true about most teacher education roles and functions, there is little agreement or clarity about the skills and knowledge necessary for an effective university supervisor.

Teacher education as a field of study and an arena of practice has been plagued by competing claims, alternate propositions, and very little disciplined research. Consequently, it is difficult to prescribe teacher education roles with any certainty, in the sense of knowledge bases, or with any predictive validity in terms of consequences. This state of affairs, naturally, extends to the role of the university supervisor. Conference participants noted that there were few, if any, prescriptions for role behavior for supervisors and when such prescriptions did exist, there was little solid knowledge- or research-derived rationales to support them.

Clearly, there is a need for greater attention to the prerequisites for the role of the university supervisor of student teaching. Certainly, there are personal characteristics which would contribute to the perceived effectiveness of supervisors. The issue here, though, is one of professional characteristics and related knowledge and skill. At the very least, agreed conference members, the institutions which provide teacher education opportunities should provide forums in which a set of minimal skills and a body of basic understandings can be developed and tested in use.

This basic knowledge base might include such components as alternate forms of pedagogy, a strong subject matter orientation, knowledge about child growth and development, skills related to planning and materials development, understandings about school contexts (specific and general), and a set of

approaches to pupil and program evaluation. This list, incomplete as it is, seems to be more comprehensive in terms of content than any published or locally-produced ones which had been examined by conference members.

The Contexts of Student Teaching

There was considerable attention given by participants to the contexts within which student teaching takes place. These contexts can be seen as the higher education institution, the public elementary or secondary school, and the classroom. Although there are other social and organizational contexts which are believed to influence student teaching (e.g., the community, the home environments of pupils, etc.), the three noted here received the most attention at the conference.

> There is often little match between the institution of higher education and the public elementary and secondary schools in terms of goals, practices, and beliefs associated with student teaching.

In discussing higher education-school system relationships, the conference members pointed out numerous instances of conflict between the two settings. The basic question, of course, is, "Whose interests should be served by the student teaching experience?" It was claimed that colleges of education often make assumptions about teaching and learning which are in basic conflict with the practices engaged in by school persons. An example which was heard again and again at the conference was the persistence in higher education of the "whole child" conception of schooling while school systems, in response to the current attention to the basics, have reordered their priorities to emphasize skill development to the virtual exclusion of the social sciences and humanities.

The issue of congruence of goals and so forth between the two organizations was seen as central to many of the dysfunctional relationships and their attendant conflicts which often characterize student teaching. The student teacher is often caught in a difficult web which, on the one hand, makes certain curricular and pedagogical demands and, on the other, does not provide opportunities to learn and/or practice the necessary skills.

This lack of complementarity was seen as a problem definitely in need of resolution. Examples of instances where such resolution has taken place were few. What is needed, according to some conference participants, is an ongoing dialogue between representatives of the two organizations during which conflicts can be anticipated and, when possible, resolved in advance. It is not clear how such a dialogue can be instituted and maintained but the effort appeared to be a worthy expenditure of time and energy if greater congruence between institutions can be accomplished.

Influence and communication, more often than not, is from the institution of higher education to the school system rather than bidirectional.

At issue in the discussion immediately above is the degree to which one institution should influence the other one. It was acknowledged that most teacher education programs are dominated at the policy (and sometimes practice) level by the college or university. Although the conference members suggested that the student teaching experience could be a highly valued vehicle for introducing change into elementary and secondary school settings, they agreed that the college or university could also learn from the public school sector. Instances of "ivory towerism" were cited whereby professors did little (or nothing) to help student teachers understand and act upon the persistent problems of teaching and learning in conventional

Considered important were such issues as the norms and rewards of the school culture, the nature of the school bureaucracy, the relation of roles (e.g., teacher, principal, supervisor) within the school system, and the typical patterns of school life.

It was acknowledged that teachers in general are also not articulate about these issues and that a concerted effort to help cooperating teachers understand and analyze them would also be necessary. Nevertheless, it was generally agreed that attending to the school culture could be a powerful pre-socializing influence upon prospective teachers.

> There is often a discontinuity between coursework and student teaching which can be traced to a lack of articulation between and among program designers and program implementers. This is particularly true of context-related issues.

It was argued by some conference members that the relation between coursework and field experiences in teacher education programs is often tenuous. As noted before, the lack of articulation between the expectations and practices of the college persons and school-based persons aggravates the problem.

It is assumed that prospective teachers will be served well if they are engaged in educational activities which build upon and reinforce one another. This desired reinforcement is absent when coursework does not prepare one for the contexts of field placements, when the persons "in charge" of the various components of teacher education (e.g., professors and school persons) do not coordinate their expectations and activities, and when the signals to the prospective teacher are consistently (or even occasionally) in disharmony. Conference participants noted that the context issue was a particularly strong case of this disharmony.

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settings. Conversely, the conference members also reported occasions when the elementary or secondary school persons could have benefited from the knowledge and skill residing in the college or university if only they could have stepped back from the "dailiness" of schooling.

Notwithstanding the inherent possibilities for mutual improvement and growth between the two contexts, it was acknowledged that the barriers are real and persistent. The histories of the institutions, the prior experiences of members of the organizations, the popular myths and misconceptions about the ethos of an instituion -- all of these factors, and others, get in the way of bidirectional influence. Yet, conference participants expressed strong belief in the positive outcomes which could accrue to the student teaching experience, and other school-related activities, if the institutions and the people in them could learn from one another in systematic and carefully monitored ways rather than depend upon the typical pattern of university to school system influence.

Student teachers frequently have very minimal understanding of school and classroom context when they begin student teaching.

A recurring theme during our two days together was the expressed belief that student teachers, too often, enter the elementary or secondary classroom and school contexts with little or no real understanding of their natures. That is, although the student teacher may have a well-developed sense of subject matter, a repertoire of teaching skills, and a basic curriculum plan, they have little or no knowledge about the social context of schooling.

Some conference members argued that a basic understanding of how a school "works" is necessary to successful entry to teaching and should be a central part of any professional education sequence. It was noted that there were few examples of teacher education programs which attended to this.

Consider, for example, the dilemma faced by the prospective teachers when they learn one set of teaching skills in college methods courses, enter a field placement where those skills appear to be inappropriate, and encounter cooperating teachers who resent the fact that they believe they must "reteach" the neophyte teacher after he or she has nearly ended a professional sequence. As with several of the issues above, this one can probably be dealt with only in terms of concerted coordination between college/university and school persons.

Outcomes of Student Teaching

Considering that student teaching is regarded by most teachers as the most valuable contribution to their professional preparation, it is surprising that there are no clearly agreed-to desirable outcomes of the experience. This concluding section of the paper will consider that issue in terms of the beliefs conference participants expressed regarding what the outcomes of student teaching should or could be.

The issue of satisfaction has been dealt with already in this document (see the Hass chapter). Conference members in general, agreed with the arguments presented in that paper but some expressed hesitation at using satisfaction as the sole outcome criterion.

An additional suggestion was that student teaching should be judged by the degree to which it contributed to the accomplishment of the goals of the particular teacher education program under consideration. This, of course, is essentially an evaluation stance. The argument here is that there is a naturally-occuring clarification process when principles and procedures of evaluation are put into place. For example, in order for an evaluation to be optimally successful, methodologically and in terms of program decision making, it is necessary that purposes be expressed with clarity, that

activities be monitored with systematic attention, and that participants be involved in the process. This attention to the components and details of a teacher education program is believed to be a potentially powerful means to accomplish the program articulation noted earlier as an issue in need of resolution.

Another proposition put forth by some conference members was that the accumulated body of research findings about "effective" teachers be a major component of teacher education and that the criteria of effectiveness be considered principal outcomes of student teaching. Taking such an approach, teacher educators would design a program of studies which included an attempt to teach prospective teachers what research indicates as effective teaching strategies and examine the field experiences of students in terms of the degree to which these strategies are observable in elementary and/or secondary classroom settings. This argument is buttressed by the fact that our understanding of what effectiveness is has increased measurably during the past decade. These more powerful and replicated research findings would provide teacher educators and prospective teachers with a focussed and well-delineated core of behavioral expectations -- a phenomenon which apparently is missing from many preparation programs.

Certainly, the reflective and "wide-awake" teacher, as proposed by the Greene paper, received attention from the conference members. There was general agreement that the characteristics and understandings suggested by that paper are desirable and necessary. As outcome variables, however, they were seen as being difficult to operationalize and, hence, to measure. This problem, however, did not deter participants from urging teacher educators to seriously consider them as program variables.

Teacher educators in colleges/universities and in school districts agreed that the "fit" of the student teacher, in terms of practices and knowledge, with the school context should be considered as an outcome variable. This attention to the degree to which the student either moves comfortably (or adapts himself/herself) into the school and classroom was seen as one means by which the higher education persons and school persons could come to greater clarity about what student teachers are expected to accomplish during the student teaching experience. Again, the program articulation issue confounds this possibility but, also, it might be possible to develop a planning mode which would both clarify the outcome variable issue and promote a greater degree of articulation.

Conclusion

This final chapter has considered the issues which were raised during the conference. As suggested earlier, it was not possible to report all of the concerns, suggestions for practice, and arguments in the space available. It is important to emphasize once again, however, that the conference participants were generous in their willingness to share ideas, grapple with tough questions, and admit to the persistent dilemmas associated with student teaching. As a consequence of this conference and other activities, the RITE staff was able to conceptualize and put into place a multi-site, multi-method study of student teaching which, we believe, is conceptually strong and methodologically apt. The findings from that study will be made available to persons concerned with the clinical component of preservice teacher education in August of 1982.

Appendix A

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Appendix A (cont.)

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